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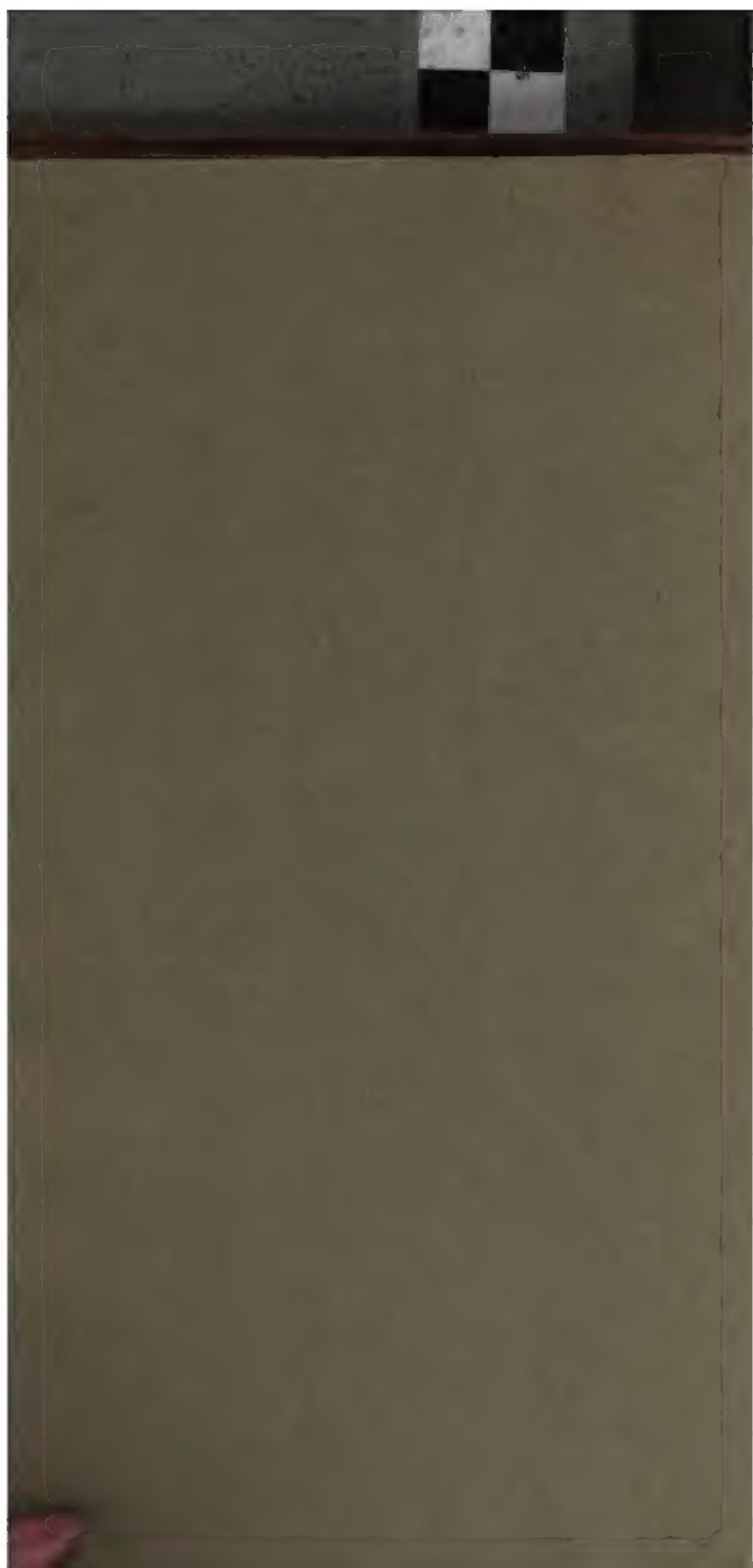
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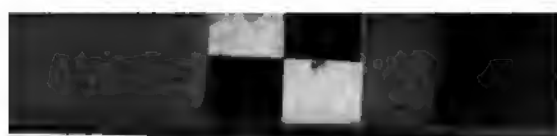
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Peter Gansevoort, Princeton. N. J.

AN
EPITOME

*Massachusetts
1808*

OF
CHEMISTRY,

IN
THREE PARTS.

PART I.

INTENDED TO FACILITATE THE ACQUISITION OF CHEMICAL
KNOWLEDGE, BY MINUTE INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE PER-
FORMANCE OF EXPERIMENTS.

PART II.

DIRECTIONS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF MINERAL WATERS; OF
EARTHS AND STONES; OF ORES OF METALS; AND OF
MINERAL BODIES IN GENERAL. AND,

PART III.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR APPLYING CHEMICAL TESTS AND RE-
AGENTS TO VARIOUS USEFUL PURPOSES.

BY WILLIAM HENRY.

FROM THE FOURTH ENGLISH EDITION:

MUCH ENLARGED AND ILLUSTRATED WITH PLATES.

*To which are added NOTES by a Professor of Chemistry
in this Country.*

NEW-YORK:

PRINTED AND SOLD BY COLLINS AND PERKINS,

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1808.

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RECOMMENDATIONS.

In consequence of the favourable opinion we entertain of the *fourth* edition of Henry's Epitome of Chemistry, we have adopted it as a text book for our respective classes. A revised and corrected edition of it has, at the request of one* of us, been printed by Messrs. Collins & Perkins; and we take the liberty of recommending it as the best Compendium of the Science with which we are acquainted.

JOHN MACLEAN,
*Professor of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry in the
College of New-Jersey.*

BENJAMIN SILLIMAN,
Professor of Chemistry in Yale College, New-Haven.

New-York, Feb. 15, 1808.

Messrs. Collins & Perkins,
GENTLEMEN,

To your request that I would give you my opinion of the fourth edition of Henry's Chemistry, permit me to reply that I consider it by far the best work (of its size) that has appeared on the subject. The style is classical, the most approved doctrines are adopted, the experiments are detailed with precision, and the whole exhibits a beautiful illustration of the facts on which Chemical Science is founded. Impressed with these sentiments, as to the merits of the work, I cannot doubt that an American edition of it will be highly acceptable to the public, and that to the student of chemistry in particular it will be deemed an essential acquisition.

Yours, &c.

JAMES S. STRINGHAM.
Professor of Chemistry in Columbia College, New-York.

* B. Silliman.

New-York, Feb. 15, 1808.

Messrs. Collins & Perkins,

I have no hesitation in recommending the fourth edition of Mr. Henry's Epitome of Chemistry, as a useful, correct, and meritorious work, well calculated to give a concise view of the modern discoveries in Chemistry, and to facilitate the researches of the student in that science.

I am, respectfully,

Your most obedient servant.

B. DE WITT, M. D.

*Professor of Institutes, and Lecturer on Chemistry, in the
University of the state of New-York.*



PREFACE

TO THE

FOURTH ENGLISH EDITION.

THE EPITOME OF CHEMISTRY, a new edition of which is now offered to the public, was originally compiled at a period, when we had not, in the English language, any elementary book on this science, of similar plan and intentions; and before I had seen the only work, which is at all coincident in design with my own, the "*Manuel d'un Cours de Chimie, par Bouillon La-Grange.*" The compendium of La-Grange, however, though containing a copious and well arranged collection of facts and processes, valuable even to the experienced chemist, appears to me to be adapted, rather to assist a public teacher in the practical execution of his office, than to direct an unskilled student to a train of simple and easy experiments. This object I have endeavoured to accomplish in the first part of the following work; which is to be considered as an assemblage of such facts, as are best

adapted to convey a knowledge of the elements of the science, and not as a systematic arrangement of all that is known on the subject. With this view, I have described only the leading and characteristic properties of bodies, and have carefully avoided a multiplicity of details, because they would have encumbered the memory, and left to the reader that selection, which properly belongs to the author.

Respecting the present edition, it is expedient to state, that in order to keep pace with the rapid progress of chemical science, the work has been, almost entirely, written anew; and that the additions exceed considerably the original matter. In the Appendix will be found a variety of useful tables, partly original, but chiefly selected. The plates, which are added for the first time, exhibit, I believe, every article of apparatus, that is essential to the pursuit of operative chemistry. The sketches* have been made, from actual models, in the orthographic manner, which appears to me to possess, for this purpose, several advantages over the common mode of drawing in perspective; and is almost universally adopted in the recent works of the French chemists. It displays, with great distinctness, the most minute parts of complicated instruments; and being executed to a scale, which

* For these sketches I am indebted to my friends, Mr. Ewart of Manchester; and Messrs. Creighton, of Soho, Birmingham.

is placed at the bottom of each plate, a workman is enabled to construct what is represented, much more easily and accurately, than from any verbal description or perspective figure. The orthographic drawing has the recommendation, also, of greater facility; and of being less costly in the engraving.

P. S. To prevent the applications, which are frequently made to me, for chests containing collections of Chemical substances, announced in the former editions of the Epitome, I avail myself of this opportunity to state, that other engagements have obliged me to discontinue their preparation; and that the chests may now be had, on the same plan, of Messrs. Knights, No. 41, Foster-Lane, London.

Manchester, }
April 3, 1806. }



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DEX.)

INTRODUCTION.*

THE custom of prefacing a course of lectures, with the history of the science which is their subject, has been so long established, that it may be necessary to state, briefly, the reasons that have induced me to depart from this unvaried usage.

The history of chemistry may either be merely a history of the science, that is, a view of the progressive developement of the facts and doctrines of which the science is composed; or it may comprehend, also, the biography of chemists. The detail of the progress of discovery, however, concerning particular objects of chemical research, would certainly be premature, at a period, when the student may be supposed to be ignorant of the external forms, and even of the existence, of no in-

* The following discourse formed, originally, the introduction to a series of lectures delivered in Manchester, and was afterwards published under the title of "A General View of the Nature and Objects of Chemistry, and of its application to Arts and Manufactures." As the readers of an elementary book may be presumed to require a similar plan of instruction, with the hearers of a popular course of lectures, I have thought it unnecessary to alter the form under which the essay first appeared, though a few passages are applicable chiefly to the persons to whom it was originally addressed.

considerable part of them. Respecting chemists themselves, little can be said that can contribute to information or amusement; for their lives, devoted to the abstract pursuits of science, have seldom been productive of events, that are suited to awaken or gratify general curiosity. Our interest, indeed, respecting philosophers, is seldom excited, unless by a knowledge of the additions which they have made, to the facts or theories of a science; and with these a lecturer may fairly presume, however the fact may really be, that his hearers, at the commencement of a course, are wholly unacquainted. It may be added, that the history of chemistry admits of little illustration from experiment; and I shall always be reluctant to bestow time on those subjects, which, requiring not the aid of an appeal to the senses, are equally well adapted for private study.

On these grounds, therefore, I hope to be excused for infringing the general plan of lectures on chemistry, and devoting to other purposes the time that would have been allotted to the history of the science. For this, will be substituted a brief view of the nature and objects of chemistry; of its connection with the arts and with other sciences; and an outline of the plan on which the following lectures will be conducted.

Natural philosophy, in its most extensive sense, is a term comprehending every science, that has for its objects the properties and affections of matter. But it has attained, by the sanction of common language, a more limited signification; and chemistry, though strictly a branch of natural philosophy, is generally regarded as a distinct science. Between the two it may, perhaps, be difficult to mark out precisely the line of separation; but, an obvious character of the facts of natural

philosophy is, that they are always attended with sensible motion; and the determination of the laws of motion is peculiarly the office of its cultivators. Chemical changes, on the other hand, of the most important kind, often take place without any apparent motion, either of the mass, or of its minute parts; and where the eye is unable to perceive that any change has occurred. The laws of gravitation, of central forces, and all the other powers that fall under the cognizance of the natural philosopher, produce, at most, only a change of place in the bodies that obey their influence. But, in chemical changes, we may always observe an important difference in the properties of things: Their appearances and qualities are completely altered, and their individuality destroyed. Thus, two highly corrosive substances, by uniting chemically together, may become mild and harmless; the combination of two colourless substances may present us with a compound of brilliant complexion; and the union of two fluids, with a compact and solid mass.

Chemistry, therefore, may be defined, that science, the object of which is to discover and explain the changes of composition, that occur among the integrant and constituent parts of bodies.*

From this definition, it may readily be conceived, how wide is the range of chemical inquiry; and, by applying it to the various events that daily occur in the order of nature, we shall be enabled to separate them with accuracy, and to allot, to the sciences of natural philosophy and chemistry, the proper objects of the cultivation of each.

* The reader, who wishes to examine other definitions of chemistry, will find a variety of them, collected by Dr. Black, in the first volume of his "Lectures."

Whenever a change of place is a necessary part of any event, we shall call in the aid of the former. When this condition may be dispensed with, we shall resort to chemistry for the light of its principles. But it will be often found, that the concurrence of the two sciences is essential to the full explanation of phenomena. The water of the ocean, for example, is raised into the atmosphere by its chemical combination with the matter of heat; but the clouds, that are thus formed, maintain their elevated situation by virtue of a specific gravity inferior to that of the lower regions of the air,—a law, the discovery and application of which are due to the natural philosopher, strictly so called.

It has not been unusual to consider chemistry, under the two-fold view of a science and of an art. This arrangement, however, appears to have had its origin in an imperfect discrimination between two objects, that are essentially distinct. Science consists of assemblages of facts, associated together in classes, according to circumstances of resemblance or analogy. The business of its cultivators is, first, to investigate and establish individual truths, either by the careful observation of natural appearances, or of new and artificial combinations of phenomena, produced by the instruments of experiment. The next step in philosophy is the induction, from well ascertained facts, of general principles or laws, more or less comprehensive in their extent, and serving, like the classes and orders of natural history, the purposes of an artificial arrangement. Of such a body of facts and doctrines, the science of chemistry is composed. But the employment of the artist consists merely in producing a given effect, for the most part by the sole guidance of practice or ex-

perience. In the repetition of processes, he has only to follow an established rule ; and, in the improvement of his art, he is benefited generally by fortuitous combinations, to which he has not been directed by any general axiom. An artist, indeed, of enlarged and enlightened mind, may avail himself of general principles, and may employ them as an useful instrument in perfecting established operations : But the art and the science are still marked by a distinct boundary. In such hands, they are auxiliaries to each other ; the one contributing a valuable accession of facts ; and the other, in return, imparting fixed and comprehensive principles, which simplify the processes of art, and direct to new and important practices.

The possession of the general principles of chemistry enables us to comprehend the mutual relation of a great variety of events, that form a part of the established course of nature. It unfolds the most sublime views of the beauty and harmony of the universe ; and developes a plan of vast extent, and of uninterrupted order, which could only have been conceived by perfect wisdom, and executed by unbounded power. By withdrawing the mind, also, from pursuits and amusements that excite the imagination, its investigations may tend, in common with the rest of the physical sciences, to the improvement of our intellectual and moral habits ; to strengthen the faculty of patient and accurate thinking ; and to substitute placid trains of feeling, for those which are too apt to be awakened by the contending interests of men in society, or the imperfect government of our own passions.

The class of natural events, that call for the explanations of chemical science, is of very considerable extent ; and the natural philosopher (using

this term in its common acceptation) is wholly incompetent to unfold their connection. He may explain, for example, on the principles of his own science, the annual and diurnal revolutions of the earth, and part of the train of consequences depending on these rotations. But here he must stop, and the chemist must trace the effects, on the earth's surface, of the heat and light derived from the sun; the absorption of heat by the various bodies on which it falls; the consequent fluidity of some, and volatilization of others; the production of clouds, and their condensation in the form of rain; and the effects of this rain, as well as of the sun's heat, on the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms. In these minuter changes, we shall find, there is not less excellence of contrivance, than in the stupendous movements of the planetary system. And they even interest us more nearly; because, though not more connected with our existence or comfort, yet they are more within our sphere of observation; and an acquaintance with their laws admits of a more direct application to human affairs.

There is another branch of knowledge, (that of natural history) which is materially advanced by the application of chemical science. The classifications of the naturalist are derived from an examination and comparison of the external forms, both of animate and inanimate bodies. He distributes the whole range of nature into three great and comprehensive kingdoms,—the animal, the vegetable, and the mineral. Each of these, again, is sub-divided into several less extensive classes; and individual objects are referred to their place in the system, by the agreement of their characters, with those assigned to the class, order, and genus. In the different departments of natural

history, these resemblances vary in distinctness; in facility of observation, and in certainty of description. Thus, the number and disposition of the parts of fructification in vegetables afford marks of discrimination, which are well defined, and easily ascertained. But minerals, that are not possessed of a regularly crystallized form, are distinguished by outward qualities, that scarcely admit of being accurately conveyed by language; such as minute shades of colour; or trifling differences of hardness, transparency, &c. To the evidence of these loose and varying characters, that of the chemical composition of minerals has within the few past years been added; and mineralogy has been advanced, from a confused assemblage of its objects, to the dignity of a well methodized and scientific system. In the example of crystallized bodies, the correspondence between external form and chemical composition, has been most successfully traced by the genius of Haüy; whose method of investigation has enabled him, in numerous instances, to anticipate, from physical characters, the results of the most skilful and laborious analysis.

It is unnecessary to pursue this part of the subject to a greater extent; because, to all who have been in the habit of philosophical investigation, the connection between the sciences must be sufficiently apparent; and because there is another ground, on which chemistry is more likely to claim, with success, the respect and attention of the great mass of mankind. This is, its capacity of ministering to our wants and luxuries, and of instructing us to convert, to the ordinary purposes of life, many substances which nature presents in a rude and useless form. The extraction of metals from their ores; the conversion of the

rudest materials into the beautiful fabrics of glass and porcelain; the production of wine, ardent spirits, and vinegar; and the dyeing of linen and woolen manufactures,—are only a few of the arts that are dependent on chemistry for their improvement, and even for their successful practice.

It cannot, however, be denied, that all the arts, which have been mentioned, were practised in times when the rank of chemistry, as a science, was extremely degraded; and that they are the daily employment of unlettered and ignorant men. But to what does this confession amount? and how far does it prove the independence of the above arts on the science of chemistry?

The skill of an artist is compounded of knowledge and of manual dexterity. The latter, it is obvious, no science can teach. But the acquirement of experience, in other words, a talent for accurate observation of facts, and the habit of arranging facts in the best manner, may be greatly facilitated by the possession of scientific principles. Indeed, it is hardly possible for any one to frame rules for the practice of a chemical art, or to profit by the rules of others, who is unacquainted with the general doctrines of the science. For, in all rules, it is implied, that the promised effect will only take place, when circumstances are precisely the same, as in the case under which the rule was formed. To ensure an unerring uniformity of result, the substances, employed in chemical processes, must be of uniform composition and excellence; or, when it is not possible to obtain them thus unvaried, the artist should be able to judge precisely of the defect or redundancy, that he may proportion his agents according to their qualities. Were chemical knowledge more generally possessed, we should hear less of failures and dis-

appointments in chemical operations ; and the artist would commence his proceedings, not, as at present, with distrust and uncertainty, but with a well-grounded expectation of success.

It will scarcely be contended, that any one of the arts has hitherto attained the extent of its possible perfection. In all, there is yet a wide scope for improvement, and an extensive range for ingenuity and invention. But from what class of men are we to expect useful discoveries? Are we to trust, as hitherto, to the favour of chance and accident ; to the fortuitous success of men not guided in their experiments by any general principles? Or shall we not rather endeavour to inform the artist, and to induce him to substitute, for vague and random conjecture, the torch of induction and of rational analogy? In the present imperfect state of his knowledge, the artist is even unable fully to avail himself of those fortunate accidents, by which improvements sometimes occur in his processes ; because, to the eye of common observation, he may have acted agreeably to established rules, and have varied in circumstances, which he can neither perceive nor appreciate. The man of science, in these instances, sees more deeply, and, by availing himself of a minute and accidental difference, contributes at once to the promotion of his own interest, and to the advancement of his art.

But it is the union of theory with practice that is now recommended. And, “ when theoretical knowledge and practical skill are happily combined in the same person, the intellectual power of man appears in its full perfection, and fits him equally to conduct, with a masterly hand, the details of ordinary business, and to contend successfully with the untried difficulties of new and perplexing

situations. In conducting the former, mere experience may frequently be a sufficient guide ; but experience and speculation must be combined to prepare us for the latter.* "Expert men," says Lord Bacon, "can execute and judge of particulars one by one ; but the general counsels, and the plots, and the marshalling of affairs, come best from those that are learned."

This recommendation to artists, of the acquirement of scientific knowledge, is happily sanctioned by the illustrious success, in our own days, of the application of theory to the practice of certain arts. Few persons are ignorant of the benefits, that have resulted to the manufactures of this country, from the inventions of Mr. Watt and Mr. Wedgwood ; both of whom have been not less benefactors of philosophy than eminent for practical skill. The former, by a clear insight into the doctrine of latent heat, resulting, in a great measure, from his own acuteness and patience of investigation, and seconded by an unusual share of mechanical skill, has perhaps brought the steam engine to its acmé of perfection. Mr. Wedgwood, aided by the possession of extensive chemical knowledge, made rapid advances in the improvement of the art of manufacturing porcelain ; and, besides raising himself to great opulence and distinction, has created for his country a source of most profitable and extensive industry. In an art, also, which is nearly connected with the manufactures of our own town, and the improvement of which must, therefore, "come home to our business and bosoms," we owe unspeakable obligations to two speculative chemists,

* Stewart's Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind, Chap. IV. Sect. 7.

—to Scheele, who first discovered the oxygenized muriatic acid; and to Berthollet, who first instructed us in its application to the art of bleaching.

Examples, however, may be urged against indulgence in theory; and instances are not wanting, in which the love of speculative refinement has withdrawn men entirely from the straight path of useful industry, and led them on gradually to the ruin of their fortunes. But from such instances, it would be unfair to deduce a general condemnation of theoretical knowledge. It would be the common error of arguing against things that are useful, from their occasional abuse.—In truth, projects which have, for their foundation, a dependence on chemical principles, may be undertaken with a more rational confidence, than such as have in view the accomplishment of mechanical purposes; because, in chemistry, we are better able, than in mechanics, to predict, from an experiment on a small scale, the probable issue of more extensive attempts. No one, from the successful trial of a small machine, can affirm, with unfailing certainty, that the same success will attend one on a greatly enlarged plan; because the amount of the resistances, that are opposed to motion, increases often in a *ratio* greater than, from theory, could ever have been foreseen: But the same law, by which the mineral alkali is extracted from a pound of common salt, must equally operate on a thousand times the quantity; and, even when we augment our proportions in this immense degree, the chemical affinities, by which so large a mass is decomposed, are exerted only between very small particles. The failures of the mechanic, therefore, arise from the nature of things; they occur, because he has not in his

power the means of foreseeing and calculating the causes that produce them. But, if the chemist fail in perfecting an economical scheme on a large scale, it is either because he has not sufficiently ascertained his facts on a small one, or has rashly embarked in extensive speculations, without having previously ensured the accuracy of his estimates.

The benefits, which we are entitled to expect, from the efforts of the artist and the man of science, united in the same character, and at the same time tempered and directed by prudential wisdom, affect not only individual but national prosperity. To the support of its distinction, as a commercial nation, this country is to look for the permanency of its riches, its power, and, perhaps, even of its liberties; and this pre-eminence is to be maintained, not only by local advantages, but on the more certain ground of superiority in the productions of its arts. Impressed with a full conviction of this influence of the sciences, a neighbouring and rival nation offer the most public and respectful incitements to the application of theory in the improvement of the chemical arts; and, with the view of promoting this object, national institutions have been formed among them, which have been already, in several instances, attended with the most encouraging success. It may be sufficient, at present, to mention, as an example, that France, during a long war, supplied, from her own native resources, her enormous, and, perhaps, unequalled consumption of nitre.

The general uses of chemistry have been thus fully enlarged upon, because it is a conviction of the utility of the science, that can alone recommend it to attentive and persevering study. It

may now be proper to point out, in detail, a few of its more striking applications.

I. The art which is, of all others, the most interesting, from its subserviency to wants that are interwoven with our nature, is AGRICULTURE, or the art of obtaining, from the earth, the largest crops of useful vegetables at the smallest expence.

The vegetable kingdom agrees with the animal one, in the possession of a living principle. Every individual of this kingdom is regularly organized, and requires for its support an unceasing supply of food, which is converted, as in the animal body, into substances of various forms and qualities. Each plant has its periods of growth, health, disease, decay, and death; and is affected, in all these particulars, by the varying condition of external circumstances. A perfect state of agricultural knowledge would require, therefore, not only a minute acquaintance with the structure and economy of vegetables, but with the nature and effects of the great variety of external agents, that contribute to their nutriment, or influence their state of health and vigour. The former attainment, it can hardly be expected, will ever be generally made by practical farmers; and it is in bringing the agriculturist acquainted with the precise composition of soils and manures, that chemistry promises the most solid advantages. Indeed, any knowledge that can be acquired on this subject, without the aid of chemistry, must be vague and indistinct, and can neither enable its possessor to produce an intended effect with certainty, nor be communicated to others in language sufficiently intelligible. Thus we are told, by Mr. Arthur Young, that, in some parts of England, any loose clay is called marl, in others marl

is called chalk, and in others clay is called loam. From so confused an application of terms, all general benefits of experience in agriculture must be greatly limited.

Chemistry may, to agriculturists, become a universal language, in which the facts, that are observed in this art, may be so clothed, as to be intelligible to all nations and ages. It would be desirable, for example, when a writer speaks of clay, loam, or marl, that he should explain his conception of these terms, by stating the chemical composition of each substance expressed by them. For, all the variety of soils and manures, and all the diversified productions of the vegetable kingdom, are capable of being resolved, by chemical analysis, into a small number of elementary ingredients. The formation of a well defined language, expressing the proportion of these elements in the various soils and manures, now so vaguely characterised, would give an accuracy and precision, hitherto unknown, to the experience of the tillers of the earth.

It has been said, by those who contend for pure empiricism in the art of agriculture, that it has remained stationary, notwithstanding all improvements in the sciences, for more than two thousand years. "To refute this assertion," says Mr. Kirwan, "we need only compare the writings of Cato, Columella, or Pliny, with many modern tracts, or, still better, with the modern practice of our best farmers."—"If the exact connection of effects with their causes," he adds, "has not been so fully and extensively traced in this as in other subjects, we must attribute it to the peculiar difficulty of the investigation. In other subjects, exposed to the joint operation of many causes, the effect of each, singly and exclusively taken,

may be particularly examined, and the experimenter may work in his laboratory, with the object always in his view. But the secret processes of vegetation take place in the dark, exposed to the various and indeterminable influences of the atmosphere, and require, at least, half a year for their completion. Hence the difficulty of determining on what peculiar circumstance success or failure depends; for, the diversified experience of many years can alone afford a rational foundation for solid, specific, conclusions.”*

II. To those who study **MEDICINE** as a branch of general science, or with the more important view of practical utility, chemistry may be recommended with peculiar force and propriety.—The animal body may be regarded as a living machine, obeying the same laws of motion as are daily exemplified in the productions of human art. The arteries are long, flexible, and elastic canals, admitting, in some measure, the application of the doctrine of hydraulics; and the muscles are so many levers, of precisely the same effect with those which are employed to gain power in mechanical contrivances. But there is another view, in which, with equal justice, the living body may be contemplated. It is a laboratory, in which are constantly going forward processes of various kinds, dependent on the operation of chemical affinities. The conversion of the various kinds of food into blood, a fluid of comparatively uniform composition and qualities; the production of animal heat by the action of the air on that fluid, as it passes through the lungs; and the changes, which the blood afterwards undergoes in its course

* See Kirwan on Manures.

through the body,—are all, exclusively, subjects of chemical inquiry. To these, and many other questions of physiology, chemistry has of late years been applied with the most encouraging success; and it is to a long continued prosecution of the same plan, that we are to look for a system of physiological science, which shall derive new vigour and lustre from the passing series of years.

It must be acknowledged, however, as has been observed by Mr. Davy,* that “the connection of chemistry with physiology has given rise to some visionary and seductive theories; yet even this circumstance has been useful to the public mind, in exciting it by doubt, and in leading it to new investigations. A reproach, to a certain degree just, has been thrown upon those doctrines known by the name of the chemical physiology; for, in the applications of them, speculative philosophers have been guided rather by the analogies of words than of facts. Instead of endeavouring slowly to lift up the veil, which conceals the wonderful phenomena of living nature; full of ardent imaginations, they have vainly and presumptuously attempted to tear it asunder.”

III. There is an extensive class of arts, forming, when viewed collectively, a great part of the objects of human industry, which do not, on a loose and hasty observation, present any general principle of dependency or connection. But they appear thus disunited, because we have been accustomed to attend only to the productions of these arts, which are, in truth, subservient to widely different purposes. Who would conceive, for instance, that iron and common salt; the one

* In his “Discourse, Introductory to a Course of Lectures, &c. London. Johnson. 1802.”

a metal, the use of which results from its hardness, ductility, and malleability; the other a substance, chiefly valuable from its acting as a preservative and seasoner of food,—are furnished by arts alike dependent on the general principles of chemistry? The application of science in discovering the principles of these arts, constitutes what has been termed **ECONOMICAL CHEMISTRY**; amongst the numerous objects of which, the following stand most distinguished:

1st. *Metallurgy*, or the art of extracting metals from their ores, comprehending that of *Assaying*, by which we are enabled to judge, from the composition of a small portion, of the propriety of working large and extensive strata. To the metallurgist, also, belong the various modifications of the metals when obtained, and the union of them together, in different proportions, so as to afford compounds adapted to particular uses.—Throughout the whole of this art, much practical knowledge may be suggested by attention to the general doctrines of chemistry. The artist may receive useful hints respecting the construction of furnaces for the fusion of ores and metals; the employment of the proper fluxes; the utility of the admission or exclusion of air; and the conversion of the refuse of his several operations to useful purposes. When the metals have been separated from their ores, they are to be again subjected to various chemical processes. Cast or pig iron is to be changed into the forms of wrought or malleable iron and of steel. Copper, by combination with zinc or tin, affords the various compounds of brass, pinchbeck, bell-metal, gun-metal, &c. Even the art of printing owes something of its present unexampled perfection to the improvement of the metal of types.

2d. Chemistry is the foundation of those arts, that furnish us with *saline substances*, an order of bodies highly useful in the businesses of common life. Among these, the most conspicuous are, sugar in all its various forms; the vegetable and mineral alkalies, known in commerce by the names of potash, pearlash, and barilla; common salt; green and blue vitriol, and alum; nitre or saltpetre; sugar of lead; borax; and a long catalogue, which it is needless to extend farther.

3d. The manufacturer of *glass*, and of various kinds of *pottery* and *porcelain*, should be thoroughly acquainted with the nature of the substances he employs; with their fusibility, as affected by difference of proportion, or by the admixture of foreign ingredients; with the means of regulating and measuring high degrees of heat; with the principles on which depend the hardness of his products, and their fitness for bearing the vicissitudes of heat and cold; and with the chemical properties of the best adapted colours and glazings.—Even the humble art of making bricks and tiles has received, from the chemical knowledge of Bergman, the addition of several interesting facts.

4th. The preparation of various kinds of *fermented liquors*, of wine, and ardent spirits, is intimately connected with chemical principles. Malting, the first step in the production of some of these liquors, consists in the conversion of part of the grain into saccharine matter, essential in most instances to the success of the fermentative change. To acquire a precise acquaintance with the circumstances, that favour or retard the process of fermentation, no small share of chemical knowledge is required. The brewer should be able to ascertain, and to regulate exactly, the strength of

his infusions, which will vary greatly when he has seemingly followed the same routine. He should be aware of the influence of minute changes of temperature in retarding or advancing fermentation; of the means of promoting it by proper ferments; and of the influence of the presence or exclusion of atmospherical air. A complete acquaintance with the chemical principles of his art, can hardly fail to afford him essential aid in its practice.

The production of ardent spirits is only a sequel of the vinous fermentation, and is, therefore, alike dependent on the doctrines of chemistry.

5th. The arts of *bleaching*, *dyeing*, and *printing*, are, throughout, a tissue of chemical operations. It is not unusual to hear the new mode of bleaching distinguished by the appellation of the chemical method; but it is, in truth, not more dependent on the principles of this science, than the one which it has superseded, nor than the kindred arts of dyeing and printing. In the instance of bleaching, the obligation due to the speculative chemist is universally felt and acknowledged. But the dyer and the printer have yet to receive from the philosopher, some splendid invention, which shall command their respect, and excite their attention to chemical science. From purely speculative men, however, much less is to be expected, than from men of enlightened experience, who endeavour to discover the design and reason of each step in the processes of their arts, and fit themselves for more effectual observation of particular facts, by diligently possessing themselves of general truths.

The objects of inquiry, that present themselves to the dyer and printer, are of considerable number and importance. The preparation of goods

for the reception of colouring matter ; the application of the best bases, or means of fixing fugitive colours ; the improvement of colouring ingredients themselves ; and the means of rendering them permanent, so that they shall not be affected by soap, or by the accidental contact of acids, or other corrosive bodies ; are among the subjects of chemical investigation. It is the business of the dyer, therefore, to become a chemist ; and he may be assured, that, even if no brilliant discovery should be the reward of the acquisition, he will yet be better fitted by it for conducting common operations, with certain and unvaried success.

6th. The *tanning and preparation of leather* are processes strictly chemical, which were involved in mystery, till they were reduced to well established principles, by the researches of Seguin, and by the subsequent experiments of Davy. In this, as in most other examples, the application of science to the practical improvement of an art, has to encounter the obstacles of ignorance and prejudice. But the interests of men are sure finally to prevail ; and the most bigotted attachment to established forms must give place to the clearly demonstrated utility of new practices. Such a demonstration is generally furnished, by some artist of more enlightened views than his neighbours, who has the spirit to deviate from ordinary rules ; and thus becomes, (not unfrequently with some personal sacrifice) a model for the imitation of others, and an important benefactor of mankind.

Many other chemical arts might be enumerated ; but enough, I trust, has been said, to evince the connection between practical skill and the possession of scientific knowledge. I shall now proceed to develope the plan, on which the following course of Lectures will be conducted.

So much has been said of the importance of chemistry in promoting the improvement of the arts, that the Lectures, which are now to be delivered, may perhaps be expected to point out, in detail, all the practical uses that may be made of the doctrines of this science. Such, however, is not the purpose of the present course, which will be limited in its objects to the general principles of the science only, and their illustration by the most apposite facts. It would be a tedious and useless labour, to enter at present into all the minuteness of technical description; for, the mind requires to be well grounded in the general truths of a science, before it can successfully direct them to the advantage of the arts. Thus, before any proficiency can be made in the arts of navigation, tactics, surveying, &c. the general principles of mathematics must first be clearly apprehended. Just so in chemistry:—A full and accurate knowledge must be gained of its principles, before any practical benefits can result from the attainment; and to the artist, who attentively studies this science, many applications of its doctrines will occur, even though they may not be specifically pointed out. At some future period, however, it will, perhaps, be the object of a distinct course of Lectures, to trace the various useful applications of chemistry, especially in those arts that are most interesting, from their connection with the manufactures of this town.

There are two methods of delivering the general doctrines of chemistry, and the facts connected with them. The one consists in a historical detail of the gradual progress of the science; and, in pursuing this plan, we follow the natural progress of the human mind, ascending from particular facts to the establishment of general truths. But

a strong objection to its adoption is, that we are thus led into a minuteness of detail, which is ill suited to the plan of elementary lectures. In the other mode of arrangement, we neglect wholly the order of time in which facts were discovered, and class them under general divisions, so framed as to assist the mind in apprehending and retaining the almost infinite variety of particular truths.

To construct a classification of chemical facts, at once adapted to lead the student, by easy and certain steps, to a knowledge of the science, and at the same time conformable to the strict rules of philosophical arrangement, is attended with considerable difficulty. For since the phenomena of chemistry consist in the mutual action of a great variety of bodies on each other, it is impossible to enumerate the properties of any one substance, which may be selected as the first object of description, without tracing the agency of many other bodies upon it, which must necessarily, at the outset, be unknown to the student. The action of certain bodies, however, is much more general and extensive than that of others. There are few chemical changes, for example, in which a combination or transfer of oxygen does not take place; and the phenomenon is even so general, as to constitute the basis of a very comprehensive division into combustible and incombustible bodies. Still more extensive is the influence of affinity, and of caloric, over chemical changes; and it is scarcely possible to describe any one of these changes, without using language connected with the peculiar doctrines respecting affinity.

Attraction, or affinity, therefore, as the great cause of all chemical phenomena, has the first claim to attentive consideration. Next to that of attraction, the influence of heat over the forms

and qualities of bodies is the most generally observed fact; and, as this is a power which often counteracts chemical affinity, there is the more propriety in contrasting the operations of the two: The phenomena and laws of heat will conduct, naturally, to the great source or reservoir of it, which will be traced to a class of bodies, agreeing, in mechanical properties, with the air of our atmosphere, and called airs or gases. These gases, we shall find, consist partly of solid gravitating matter, and partly of an extremely subtile fluid, which impresses on our organs the sensation of heat, and is termed caloric. When the solid ingredients of these gases, usually called their bases, combine together, or with other bodies, caloric is given out, and new compounds are formed. And as the gaseous bases are, generally speaking, simple or elementary substances, the consideration of the gases, at an early period of the course, will be strictly conformable to the plan of beginning with simple substances, and proceeding gradually to the more complex. In treating of compound substances, those will first come under review, that are formed by the action of the gaseous bases on each other, such as water and ammonia. With this alkali, the two fixed ones are, by a natural order, associated; and an analogous genus of bodies, the earths, cannot, without confusion, be referred to a different place in the system. We shall then be prepared to understand the most remarkable qualities of various other combustible bodies, which qualities appear generally in their action on the gases. Thus, for example, the most remarkable property of sulphur is its forming, with the basis of oxygen gas, the sulphuric acid, or oil of vitriol. As the acids are a very important class of the objects of chemistry,

they will be introduced early in the course; and their effects will be exhibited and explained on the bodies, which may have been already described; reserving the display of their action on other substances, till these come to be separately considered. In treating of the sulphuric acid, for example, its relation to water, the alkalies, and the earths, only will be then described; for, it would be unseasonable to detail its effects on metallic bodies, before this class of substances has been specifically discussed.

Having dismissed the consideration of such elementary bodies, as are distinguished by affording acids when combined with oxygen; of the properties of acids thus generated; and of the compounds afforded by the union of acids with alkalies, an important division of elementary substances will next claim our attention, viz. the metals.

This class of bodies, it is usual to introduce at a much earlier period: But I have adopted a different order, from the consideration, that with the previous knowledge of the constitution and qualities of acids, the history of the metals may be made much more complete; and, especially, that all the various modes and phenomena of their combinations with oxygen may be more distinctly explained.

The more complex productions of the vegetable and animal kingdoms will be the next step in our progress through the science. The economy of vegetables has, of late years, received so much elucidation from chemistry, that it would be unpardonable to omit an account of the functions and productions of vegetable life, especially as this is a subject of extensive utility, from its connection with agricultural improvement. The course will

be concluded by a view of the chemistry of the animal creation, and of the beautiful connection and subserviency to each other of the vegetable and animal kingdoms.

For the exclusive adoption of the new doctrines of chemistry, and of the nomenclature connected with them, no apology is necessary. Every one, who will be at the pains of attentively comparing the new with the old theory, I can venture to predict, will prefer the lucid arrangements and precision of the former, to the confused order and illogical inferences of the phlogistic sect. From those who have been in the habit of teaching chemistry, both before and since the revolution in this science, we have the strongest testimony, that the labour of acquiring a knowledge of it is diminished beyond all comparison.—“I have adopted the new nomenclature,” says Mr. Chaptal, “in my lectures and writings, and I have not failed to perceive how very advantageous it is to the teacher; how much it relieves the memory; how greatly it tends to produce a taste for chemistry; and with what facility and precision the ideas and principles concerning the nature of bodies fix themselves in the minds of the auditors.” We have the approbation, also, of the most distinguished metaphysicians of the age, of the connection of new doctrines with a new and more accurate language. “The new nomenclature of chemistry,” it is observed by Mr. Dugald Stewart, in his *Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind*, “seems to furnish a striking illustration of the effect of appropriate and well defined expressions, in aiding the intellectual powers; and the period

is probably not far distant, when similar innovations will be attempted in other sciences.*"

These doctrines, and the nomenclature dependent on them, have not, it must be acknowledged, been long established; and though the progress of chemistry, during and since their developement, has advanced with unexampled rapidity, we should still so limit our approbation, as not to esteem them beyond the reach of improvement. For my own part, I adopt them, not from a belief that they are perfect; but because they are better adapted than any hitherto offered, for explaining and classing phenomena; and with this qualification, I strongly recommend them to general acceptance.

* See also Condorcet's "*Esquisse d'un Tableau Historique des Progrès de l'Esprit Humain*."

AN
EPITOME
OF
EXPERIMENTAL CHEMISTRY.

PART I.

AN ARRANGED SERIES OF EXPERIMENTS
AND PROCESSES TO BE PERFORMED BY THE STUDENT
OF CHEMISTRY.

CHAP. I.

PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS.

SECTION I.

Advice to Persons who are entering on the study of Chemistry.

THE few suggestions which I am about to offer, are addressed peculiarly to those who have not the opportunity of attending chemical lectures; and who have no means of acquiring a knowledge of chemistry, except from books, and from the evidence of their own experiments.

One of the principal difficulties experienced by all who embark in a scientific pursuit, unaided by the advice of an instructor, is the attainment of the best adapted books. In chemistry, fortunately, this difficulty is limited to selec-

tion only ; for we have, in the English language, many elementary works, both original and translated, of great merit. I shall at present, however, confine myself to the mention of very few ;—of such only as are sufficient to convey to a person of tolerable understanding and competent education, a general acquaintance with chemical science ; and I shall afterwards subjoin a list of other books, necessary to those who intend to pursue the study more extensively.

Of all the introductory treatises on chemistry, that of Mr. Lavoisier is certainly the one from which a person, entering, for the first time, on this study, will derive most pleasure and advantage. The first part of this work, comprehending the more general doctrines of chemistry, should be perused with attention, and clearly understood, before the reader proceeds any farther. It may even be necessary, that, previously to the remainder of this work, he should avail himself of other elementary books, such as those of Chaptal, Fourcroy, Nicholson, Murray, and Thomson.* These works will supply the deficiencies of Lavoisier's Elements, especially on the subject of chemical affinity, the divisions and laws of which are essential to be known, as the ground-work of all chemical explanations. The doctrine respecting caloric, the most important and extensive of all chemical agents, is developed, with admirable perspicuity, in the first volume of Dr. Black's Lectures. After having made himself master of the more general truths of chemistry, and also of the principles of the new nomenclature, the student will be qualified to reap advantage from the performance of experiments. In repeating these, he may either follow the order which I shall presently point out, or he may assume, as the basis of his arrangement, the general propositions laid down by Chaptal, Fourcroy, or Thomson, referring to the following pages for more minute and specific directions.

In the conducting of experiments, I would recommend great attention to neatness and to order. Let every jar, or vial, have a label affixed to it, denoting the substances it may contain, (except in cases where the nature of the contents is evident from mere inspection,) and the date

* Dr. Thomson's excellent "System of Chemistry" is the work to which I refer. See the list of elementary Books at the end.

and object of the experiment. I would caution the student, not to engage in many different experiments at once ; the consequences of which are, that the attention is distracted, and that many interesting changes pass unnoticed. It will contribute to form a habit of accurate observation, if the appearances that occur in experiments be regularly and distinctly noted down ; and such an exercise will tend also to facilitate the acquirement of the art of describing chemical phenomena ; to relate which, with selection and precision, is far from being a universal talent.

SECTION II.

Of a Chemical Laboratory and Apparatus.

A chemical laboratory, though extremely useful, and even essential, to all who embark extensively in the practice of chemistry, either as an art, or as a branch of liberal knowledge, is by no means required for the performance of those simple experiments which furnish the evidence of the fundamental truths of the science. A room that is well lighted, easily ventilated, and destitute of any valuable furniture, is all that is absolutely necessary for the purpose. It is even advisable, that the construction of a regular laboratory should be deferred till the student has made some progress in the science ; for he will then be better qualified to accommodate its plan to his own peculiar views and convenience.

It is scarcely possible to offer the plan of a laboratory, which will be suitable to every person, and to all situations ; or to suggest any thing more than a few rules that should be generally observed. Different apartments are required for the various classes of chemical operations. The principal one may be on the ground-floor ; twenty-five feet long, fourteen or sixteen wide, and open to the roof, in which there should be contrivances for allowing the occasional escape of suffocating vapours. This will be destined chiefly for containing furnaces, both fixed and portable. It should be amply furnished with shelves and drawers, and with a large table in the centre, the best form of which is that of a double cross. Another apartment may be appropriated to the minuter operations of chemis-

try; such as those of precipitation on a small scale, the processes that require merely the heat of a lamp, and experiments on the gases. In a third, of smaller size, may be deposited accurate balances, and other instruments of considerable nicety, which would be injured by the acid fumes that are constantly spread through a laboratory.

The following are the principal instruments that are required in chemical investigations; but it is impossible, without entering into very tedious details, to enumerate all that should be in the possession of a practical chemist.

I. FURNACES. These may either be formed of solid brick-work, or of such materials as admit of their removal from place to place.

The directions generally laid down in elementary books of chemistry, for the construction of **FIXED FURNACES**, appear to me deficient in precision, and such as a workman would find it difficult to put in practice. I have, therefore, given plans and sections, in the two last plates, of the various kinds of furnaces; and, in the Appendix, minute instructions will be found for erecting them.*

The furnaces of most general utility are, 1st, the *Wind Furnace*, in which an intense heat is capable of being excited for the fusion of metals, &c. In this furnace, the body submitted to the action of heat, or the vessel containing it, is placed in contact with the burning fuel. Fig. 60. exhibits one of the most common construction. Fig. 61. is the section of a wind furnace; the plan of which was obligingly communicated to me by Mr. Knight of Foster Lane, to whom, also, I am indebted for that represented, fig. 62. The wind furnace of Mr. Chenevix is shewn by fig. 74. 2dly, The *Evaporating Furnace* is formed of iron plates, joined together by rabbeting, and placed over horizontal returning flues. Figs. 64. and 65. are two views of this furnace, as recommended by Mr. Knight. When evaporation is performed by the naked fire, the vessel may be placed on the top of the furnace, fig. 60. or 61.; and when effected through the intervention of a water bath, a shallow kettle of water, in which is placed the evaporating dish and its contents, may be set in the same situation. 3dly, The *Reverberatory Furnace* is represented by figs.

* See the Description of the Plates.

66, 67, 68. 4thly, *The Furnace for Distilling by a Sand Heat*, is constructed, by setting upon the top of the brick-work, fig. 60., the iron pot, fig. 71.; a door being made in the side of the furnace for introducing fuel. Distillation by the naked fire, is performed with the wind furnace, figs. 62, 63. 5thly, *The Cupelling, or Enamelling Furnace*, is shewn by figs. 69, 70.

Portable furnaces, however, are amply sufficient for all the purposes of the chemical student, at the outset of his pursuit. The one which I prefer, is that shewn by figs. 58. and 59. It was originally contrived, I believe, by Mr. Schmeisser;† and is made, with considerable improvements, by Mr. Knight. Its size is so small, that it may be set on a table, and the smoke may be conveyed from it, by a crooked iron pipe, into the chimney of the apartment. Dr. Black's furnace is generally made of a larger size; and is adapted to operations on a more considerable scale. (see figs. 72. and 73.) Both these furnaces are constructed of thin iron plates, and are lined with fire-clay. They will be minutely described in the references to the plates.

For the purpose of exciting a sudden heat, and of raising it to great intensity, nothing can be better adapted than a very simple, cheap, and ingenious furnace, contrived by Mr. Charles Aikin, fig. 55. It is formed out of pieces of black lead melting pots, in a manner to be afterwards described; and is supplied with air by a pair of double bellows, *d.* By a slight alteration, this furnace may occasionally be employed for the operation of cupelling. (see fig. 57.)

II. For containing the materials, which are to be submitted to the action of heat in a wind furnace, vessels called CRUCIBLES are employed. They are most commonly made of a mixture of fire-clay and sand, occasionally with the addition of plumbago, or black lead. The Hessian crucibles are best adapted for supporting an intense heat without melting; but they are liable to crack when suddenly heated or cooled. The porcelain ones, made by Messrs. Wedgwood, are of much purer materials, but are still more apt to crack on sudden changes of temperature; and, when used, they should, therefore, be placed in a

† See his *Mineralogy*, Tab. iii. and iv.

common crucible of larger size, the interval being filled with sand. The black lead crucibles resist very sudden changes of temperature, and may be repeatedly used; but they are destroyed when some saline substances (such as nitre) are melted in them, and are consumed by a current of air. For certain purposes crucibles are formed of pure silver, or platina. Their form varies considerably, as will appear from inspecting figs. 49, 50, 51, and 54. It is necessary, in all cases, to raise them from the bars of the grate, by a stand, fig. 53. *b*. For the purpose of submitting substances to the continued action of a red heat, and with a considerable surface exposed to the air, the hollow arched vessel, with a flat bottom, fig. 52., termed a *muffle*, is commonly used.

III. EVAPORATING VESSELS should always be of a flat shape, so as to expose them extensively to the action of heat. (see a section of one fig. 12.) They are formed of glass, of earthen ware, and of various metals. Those of glass are with difficulty made sufficiently thin, and are often broken by changes of temperature; but they have a great advantage in the smoothness of their surface, and in resisting the action of most acid and corrosive substances. Evaporating vessels of porcelain, or Wedgwood's ware, are next in utility, are less costly, and less liable to be cracked. They are made both of glazed and unglazed ware. For ordinary purposes, the former are to be preferred; but the unglazed should be employed when great accuracy is required, since the glazing is acted on by several chemical substances. Evaporating vessels of glass, or porcelain, are generally bedded, up to their edge, in sand, (see fig. 65.;) but those of various metals are placed immediately over the naked fire. When the glass or porcelain vessel is very thin, and of small size, it may be safely placed on the ring of the brass stand, plate I. fig. 13., and the flame of an Argand's lamp, cautiously regulated, may be applied beneath it. A lamp thus supported, so as to be raised or lowered, at pleasure, on an upright pillar, to which rings of various diameters are adapted, will be found extremely useful; and, when a strong heat is required, it is advisable to employ a lamp provided with double concentric wicks.

IV. In the process of evaporation, the vapour for the most part is allowed to escape ; but of certain chemical processes, the collection of the volatile portion is the principal object. This process is termed **DISTILLATION**. It is performed in vessels of various forms and materials. The common still is so generally known, that a representation of it in the plates was deemed unnecessary. It consists of a vessel, generally of copper, shaped like a tea-kettle, but without its spout and handle. Into the opening of this vessel, instead of a lid, a hollow moveable head is affixed, which ends in a narrow open pipe. This pipe is received into another tube of lead, which is twisted spirally, and fixed in a wooden tub, so that it may be surrounded by cold water. (fig. 40. *dd.*) When the apparatus is to be used, the liquid intended to be distilled is poured into the body of the still, and the head is fixed in its place, the pipe, which terminates it, being received into the leaden worm. The liquid is raised into vapour, which passes into the worm, is there condensed by the surrounding cold water, and flows out at the lower extremity.

The common still, however, can only be employed for volatilizing substances that do not act on copper, or other metals, and is, therefore, limited to very few operations. The vessel, fig. 2., is of glass, or earthen ware, and is also intended for distillation. It is termed an *alembic*, and consists of two parts ; the body *a.* for containing the materials, and the head *b.* by which the vapour is condensed ; the pipe *c.* conveying it to a receiver. Vessels, termed *retorts*, however, are more generally used. Fig. 1. *a.* shews the common form, and fig. 13. *a.* represents a stoppered, or tubulated retort. Retorts are made of glass, of earthen ware, or of metal. When a liquid is to be added at distant intervals during the process, the best contrivance is that shewn fig. 26. *a.* consisting of a bent tube, with a funnel at the upper end. When the whole is introduced at first, it is done either through the tubulure, or, if a plain retort, through the funnel, fig. 10.

To the retort, a *receiver* is a necessary appendage ; and this may either be plain, fig. 1. *b.*, or tubulated, as shewn by the dotted lines at *c.* To some receivers a pipe is added, (fig. 13. *b.*) which may be received into a bottle beneath. This vessel, which is principally useful for removing the distilled liquid at different periods of the process,

is termed a *quilled receiver*. For some purposes, it is expedient to have the quilled part accurately ground to the neck of the bottle, *c*, which should then be furnished with a tubulure, having a ground stopper, and should be provided, also, with a bent tube, to be occasionally applied, for conveying away any gases that may be produced. The condensation of the vapour is much facilitated, by lengthening the neck of the retort with an *adopter*, (fig. 11.) the wider end of which slips over the retort neck, while its narrow extremity is admitted into the mouth of the receiver.

Heat may be applied to the retort in several modes. When the vessel is of earthen-ware, and when the distilled substance requires a strong heat to raise it into vapour, the naked fire is applied, as shewn fig. 63. Glass-retorts are generally placed in heated sand (fig. 59. ;) and, when of a small size, the flame of an Argand's lamp cautiously, regulated, may be conveniently used (fig. 13.)

In several instances, the substance raised by distillation is partly a condensible liquid, and partly a gas, which is not condensed till it is brought into contact with water. To effect this double purpose, a series of receivers, termed *Woulfe's Apparatus*, is employed. The first receiver (*b*. fig. 30.) has a right-angled glass tube, open at both ends, fixed into its tubulure; and the other extremity of the tube is made to terminate beneath the surface of distilled water, contained, as high as the horizontal dotted line, in the three-necked bottle *c*. From another neck of this bottle, a second pipe proceeds, which ends, like the first, under water, contained in a second bottle *d*. To the central neck a straight tube, open at both ends, is fixed, so that its lower end may be a little beneath the surface of the liquid. Of these bottles any number may be employed that is thought necessary.

The materials being introduced into the retort, the arrangement completed, and the joints secured in the manner to be presently described, the distillation is begun. The condensible vapour collects in a liquid form in the balloon *b*, while the evolved gas passes through the bent pipe beneath the surface of the water in *c*, which continues to absorb it till saturated. When the water of the first bottle can absorb no more, the gas passes, uncondensed, through the second right-angled tube, into the water

of the second bottle, which, in its turn, becomes saturated. Any gas that may be produced, which is not absorbable by water, escapes through the bent tube *c*, and may be collected, if necessary.

Supposing the bottles to be destitute of the middle necks, and, consequently, without the perpendicular tubes, the process would be liable to be interrupted by an accident: For if, in consequence of a diminished temperature, an absorption or condensation of gas should take place in the retort *a*, and, of course, in the balloon *b*, it must necessarily ensue, that the water of the bottles *c* and *d* would be forced, by the pressure of the atmosphere, into the balloon, and possibly into the retort;—but, with the addition of the central tubes, a sufficient quantity of air rushes through them to supply any accidental vacuum. This inconvenience, however, is still more conveniently obviated by Welter's tube of safety (fig. 31. *b*.) which supersedes the expediency of three-necked bottles. The apparatus being adjusted, as shewn by the figure, a small quantity of water is poured into the funnel, so as to about half fill the ball *b*. When any absorption happens, the fluid rises in the ball, till none remains in the tube, when a quantity of air immediately rushes in. On the other hand, no gas can escape, because any pressure from within is instantly followed by the formation of a high column of liquid in the perpendicular part, which resists the egress of gas. This ingenious invention I can recommend, from ample experience of its utility.

Very useful alterations in the construction of Woulfe's apparatus have been contrived also by Mr. Pepys and Mr. Knight. That of the former is shewn (fig. 32.,) where the balloon *b* is surmounted by a vessel accurately ground to it, and furnished with a glass-valve, resembling that affixed to Nooth's apparatus. This valve allows gas to pass freely into the vessel *c*, but prevents the water which it contains from falling into the balloon. Mr. Knight's improvement is described, and represented in a plate, in the Philosophical Magazine, Vol. XX.*

When a volatile substance is submitted to distillation, it is necessary to prevent the escape of the vapour through

* Another modification of this apparatus by Mr. Murray, is represented in Nich. Journ. 8vo. Vol. III.

the junctures of the vessels ; and this is accomplished by the application of LUTES. The most simple method of confining the vapour, it is obvious, would be to connect the places of juncture accurately together by grinding ; and accordingly the neck of the retort is sometimes ground to the mouth of the receiver. This, however, adds too much to the expense of apparatus to be generally practised.

When the distilled liquid has no corrosive property, (such as water, alcohol, ether, &c.) slips of moistened bladder, or of paper or linen spread with flour paste, white of egg, or mucilage of gum Arabic, sufficiently answer the purpose. The substance which remains, after expressing the oil from bitter almonds, and which is sold under the name of almond-meal or flour, forms a useful lute, when mixed, to the consistency of glaziers' putty, with water or mucilage. For confining the vapour of acid or highly corrosive substances, the fat lute is well adapted. It is formed, by beating perfectly dry and finely sifted tobacco-pipe-clay with painter's drying oil, to such a consistence that it may be moulded by the hand. The same clay, beat up with as much sand as it will bear, without losing its tenacity, with the addition of cut tow, or of horse-dung, and a proper quantity of water, furnishes a good lute, which has the advantage of resisting a considerable heat, and is applicable in cases where the fat lute would be melted or destroyed. Various other lutes are recommended by chemical writers ; but the few that have been enumerated I find to be amply sufficient for every purpose.

On some occasions, it is necessary to protect the retort from too sudden changes of temperature by a proper coating. For glass retorts, a mixture of common clay or loam with sand, and cut shreds of flux, may be employed. If the distillation be performed by a sand heat, the coating needs not to be applied higher than that part of the retort which is bedded in sand ; but if the process be performed in a wind furnace (fig. 63.,) the whole body of the retort, and that part of the neck also which is exposed to heat, must be carefully coated. To this kind of distillation, however, earthen retorts are better adapted ; and they may be covered with a composition originally recommended by Mr. Willis. Two ounces of borax are to be dissolved in a pint of boiling water, and a sufficient quantity of slaked lime added, to give it the thickness of cream. This is to

be applied by a painter's brush, and allowed to dry. Over this a thin paste is afterwards to be applied, formed of slaked lime and common linseed-oil, well mixed and perfectly plastic. In a day or two, the coating will be sufficiently dry to allow the use of the retort.

For joining together the parts of iron vessels, used in distillation, a mixture of the finest China clay, with solution of borax, is well adapted. In all cases, the different parts of any apparatus made of iron should be accurately fitted by boring and grinding, and the above lute is to be applied to the part which is received into an aperture. This will generally be sufficient without any exterior luting: otherwise the lute of clay, sand, and flax, already described, may be used.

In every instance, where a lute or coating is applied, it is advisable to allow it to dry before the distillation is begun; and even the fat lute, by exposure to the air during one or two days after its application, is much improved in its quality. The clay and sand lute is perfectly useless, except it be previously quite dry. In applying a lute, the part immediately over the juncture should swell outwards, and its diameter should be gradually diminished on each side (See fig. 13., where the luting is shewn, applied to the joining of the retort and receiver.)

Besides the apparatus already described, a variety of vessels and instruments are necessary, having little resemblance to each other, in the purposes to which they are adapted. Glass vessels are required for effecting *solution*, which often requires the application of heat, and sometimes for a considerable duration. In the latter case it is termed *digestion*, and the vessel fig. 4., called a *matras*, is the most proper for performing it. When solution is quickly effected, the bottle fig. 5., with a rounded bottom, may be used, or a common Florence oil flask serves the same purpose extremely well, and bears, without cracking, sudden changes of temperature. For *precipitations*, and separating liquids from precipitates, the decanting-jar (fig. 16.) will be found useful; or, if preferred, it may be shaped as in fig. 26. *f*. Liquids, of different specific gravities, are separated by the vessel fig. 3.; the heavier fluid being drawn off through the cock *b*, and air being admitted by the removal of the stopper *a*, to supply its place. Glass rods, of various length, and spoons of the same materi-

or of porcelain, are useful for stirring acid and corrosive liquids; and a stock of cylindrical tubes, of various sizes, is required for occasional purposes. It is necessary also to be provided with a series of glass measures, graduated into drachms, ounces, and pints.

Accurate beams and scales, of various sizes, with corresponding weights, some of which are capable of weighing several pounds, while the smaller size ascertains a minute fraction of a grain, are essential instruments in the chemical laboratory. So also are mortars of different materials, such as of glass, porcelain, agate, and metal. Wooden stands, of various kinds, for supporting receivers, should be provided. For purposes of this sort, and for occasionally raising to a proper height any article of apparatus, a series of blocks, made of well-seasoned wood, eight inches (or any other number) square, and respectively eight, four, two, one, and half an inch in thickness, will be found extremely useful; since, by combining them in different ways, no less than thirty-one different heights may be attained.

The blow-pipe is an instrument of much utility in chemical researches. A small one, invented by Mr. Pepys, with a flat cylindrical box for condensing the vapour of the breath, and for containing caps, to be occasionally applied with apertures of various sizes, is perhaps the most commodious form. A blow-pipe, which is supplied with air from a pair of double bellows worked by the foot, may be applied to purposes that require both hands to be left at liberty, and will be found useful in blowing glass, and in bending tubes. The latter purpose, however, may be accomplished by holding them over an Argand's lamp with double wicks.

In the course of this work, various other articles of apparatus will be enumerated, in detailing the purposes to which they are adapted, and the principles on which they are constructed. It must be remembered, however, that it is no part of my object to describe every ingenious and complicated invention, which has been employed in the investigation of chemical science; but merely to assist the student in attaining apparatus for general and ordinary purposes. For such purposes, and even for the prosecution of new and important inquiries, very simple means are sufficient; and some of the most interesting chemical

facts may be exhibited with the aid merely of Florence flasks, of common vials, and of wine glasses. In converting these to the purposes of apparatus, a considerable saving of expence will accrue to the experimentalist ; and he will avoid the incumbrance of various instruments, the value of which consists in show, rather than in real utility.

In the selection of experiments, I shall generally choose such as may be undertaken by persons not possessed of an extensive chemical apparatus. On some occasions, however, it may be necessary, in order to complete the series, that others should be included, requiring, for their performance, instruments of considerable nicety. The same experiment may, perhaps, in a few instances, be repeatedly introduced in illustration of different principles ; but this repetition will be avoided as much as possible. Each experiment will be preceded by a brief enunciation of the general truth which it is intended to illustrate.



CHAP. II.

CHEMICAL AFFINITY, SOLUTION, &c.

For these experiments, a few wine glasses, or, in preference, deep ale glasses, will be required ; and a Florence flask for performing the solutions.

I. *Some bodies have no affinity for each other.*—Oil and water, mercury and water, or powdered chalk and water, when shaken together, do not combine ; the oil or water always rising to the surface, and the mercury or chalk sinking to the bottom.

II. *Examples of chemical affinity, and its most simple effect, viz. solution.*—Sugar or common salt in water, chalk in dilute muriatic acid.*

III. *Influence of mechanical division in promoting the action of chemical affinity, or in favouring solution.*—Lumps

* I omit, purposely, the distinction between the solution and dissolution.

of chalk or marble dissolve much more slowly in dilute muriatic acid, than equal weights of the same bodies in powder. Muriate of lime, or nitrate of ammonia, cast, after liquefaction by heat, into the shape of a solid sphere, is very slowly dissolved; but with great rapidity when in the state of a powder or of crystals. When a lump of the Derbyshire fluat of lime is immersed in concentrated sulphuric acid, scarcely any action of the two substances on each other takes place; but if the stone be finely pulverized, and then mingled with the acid, a violent action is manifested, by the copious escape of vapours of fluoric acid. In the common arts of life, the rasping and grinding of wood and other substances are familiar examples.

IV. *Hot liquids are more powerful solvents than cold ones.*—To four ounce measures of water, at the temperature of the atmosphere, add three ounces of sulphate of soda in powder. Only part of the salt will be dissolved, even after being agitated some time. Apply heat, and the whole of the salt will disappear. When the liquor cools, a portion of salt will separate again in a regular form. This last appearance affords an instance of crystallization. (N. 6.)

V. *A very minute division of bodies is effected by solution.*—Dissolve two grains of sulphate of iron in a quart of water, and add a few drops of this solution to a wine-glass-full of water, into which a few drops of tincture of galls have been fallen. The dilute infusion of galls will speedily assume a purplish hue. This shows that every drop of the quart of water, in which the sulphate of iron was dissolved, contains a notable portion of the salt.

VI. *Some bodies dissolve much more readily and copiously than others.*—Thus, an ounce measure of distilled water will dissolve half its weight of sulphate of ammonia, one-third its weight of sulphate of soda, one-sixteenth of sulphate of potash, and only one-five hundredth its weight of sulphate of lime.

VII. *Mechanical agitation facilitates solution.*—Into a wine-glass-full of water, tinged blue with the infusion of litmus, let fall a small lump of solid tartarous acid. The acid, if left at rest, even during some hours, will only change to red that portion of the infusion which is in immediate contact with it. Stir the liquor, and the whole will immediately become red.

VIII. *Bodies do not act on each other, unless either one or both be in a state of solution.*—1. Mix some dry acid of tartar with dry carbonate of potash. No combination will ensue till water is added, which, acting the part of a solvent, promotes the union of the acid and alkali, as appears from the violent effervescence.

2. Spread thinly, on a piece of tinfoil, three or four inches square, some dry nitrate of copper,* (N. 7.) and wrap it up. No effect will follow. Unfold the tinfoil, and having sprinkled the nitrate of copper with very little water, wrap it up again as quickly as possible, pressing down the edges closely. Considerable heat, attended with fumes, will now be excited; and, if the experiment has been dexterously managed, even light will be evolved. This shows that nitrate of copper has no action on tin, till in a state of solution.

IX. *Bodies, even when in a state of solution, do not act on each other at perceptible distances; in other words, contiguity is essential to the action of chemical affinity.*—Thus, when two fluids of different specific gravities, and which have a strong affinity for each other, are separated by a thin stratum of a third, which exerts no remarkable action on either, no combination ensues between the uppermost and lowest stratum. Into a glass jar, or deep ale-glass, pour two ounce-measures of a solution of carbonate of potash, containing, in that quantity, two drachms of common salt of tartar. Under this introduce, very carefully, half an ounce-measure of water, holding in solution a drachm of common salt; and again, under both these, two ounce-measures of sulphuric acid, which has been diluted with an equal weight of water. The introduction of a second and third liquid beneath the first, is best effected, by filling, with the liquid to be introduced, the dropping tube fig. 15. pl. 1., which is done by the action of the mouth. The finger is then pressed on the upper orifice of the tube; and the lower orifice, being brought to the bottom of the vessel containing the liquid, the finger is withdrawn, and the liquid descends from the tube, without

* To prepare nitrate of copper, dissolve the filings or turnings of that metal in a mixture of one part nitrous acid and three parts water; decant the liquor when it has ceased to emit fumes; and evaporate it to dryness, in a copper or earthen dish. The dry mass must be kept in a bottle.

mingling with the upper stratum. When a solution of carbonate of potash is thus separated from dilute sulphuric acid, for which it has a powerful affinity, by the intervention of a thin stratum of brine, the two fluids will remain distinct and inefficient on each other; but, on stirring the mixture, a violent effervescence ensues, in consequence of the action of the sulphuric acid on the potash.

X. *Two bodies, having no affinity for each other, unite by the intervention of a third.*—Thus, the oil and water which, in Experiment I., could not, by agitation, be brought into union, unite immediately on adding a solution of caustic potash. The alkali, in this case, acts as an intermedium.

XI. *Saturation illustrated.*—Water, after having taken up as much common salt as it can dissolve, is said to be saturated with salt. Muriatic acid, when it has ceased to act any longer on lime, is said to be saturated.

XII. *Some bodies unite in one definite proportion only; others in two or three; while others again unite in all proportions.*—Thus azote and hydrogen are only known to combine in the proportion of 80 parts of the former to 20 of the latter. The tartarous acid affords two distinct compounds, with two different proportions of potash. Sulphuric acid unites with water, in almost every proportion.

XIII. *The properties characterising bodies, when separate, are destroyed by chemical combination, and new properties appear in the compound.*—Thus, muriatic acid and lime, which, in a separate state, have each a most corrosive taste, lose this entirely when mutually saturated; the compound is extremely soluble, though lime itself is very difficult of solution; the acid no longer reddens syrup of violets; nor does the lime change it, as before, to green.

XIV. *Simple elective affinity illustrated.*—1. Add to the combination of oil with alkali, formed in Experiment X., a little dilute sulphuric acid. The acid will seize the alkali, and set the oil at liberty, which will rise to the top. In this instance, the affinity of alkali for acid is greater than that of alkali for oil. 2. To a dilute solution of muriate of lime, (prepared in Experiment II.) add a little of the solution of pure potash. The potash will seize the muriatic acid, and the lime will fall down, or be precipitated.

From facts of this kind, tables of elective affinity have been formed. The substance, whose affinities are to be represented, is placed at the head of a column; and be-

neath it the bodies for which it has an attraction, placing those nearest to it which it attracts most strongly. Thus, in representing the affinities of muriatic acid, the following scheme is employed:*

MURIATIC ACID.

Barytes,
Soda,
Potash,
Strontites,
Lime,
Magnesia,
Ammonia,
Alumine,
&c. &c.

XV. *In every instance, in comparing the affinities of two bodies for a third, a more feeble affinity, in one of the two compared, will be found to be compensated by increasing its quantity.*—Thus, though from a compound of A and C, B may be unable to detach any part of C, when employed only in the quantity which would be required to saturate C if separate; yet, by greatly augmenting its quantity, B acquires a portion of C, and partly decomposes the former compound. Barytes for example, has a stronger affinity than potash, for muriatic acid: But, if a combination of barytes and muriatic acid be boiled in contact with a large quantity of potash, the potash will detach muriatic acid from the barytes, in direct proportion to its quantity.

It is not easy to offer clear and unequivocal examples of this law, and such as the student may submit to the test of experiment. The following, however, may serve sufficiently: Mingle together, in a mortar, one part of muriate of soda (common salt) with half a part of red oxide of lead (litharge, or red lead,) and add sufficient water to form a thin paste. The oxide of lead, on examining the mixture after twenty-four hours, will be found not to have detached the muriatic acid from the soda; for the strong taste of that alkali will not be apparent. Increase the weight of the oxide of lead to three or four times that of

* See the Table of Affinities in the Appendix.

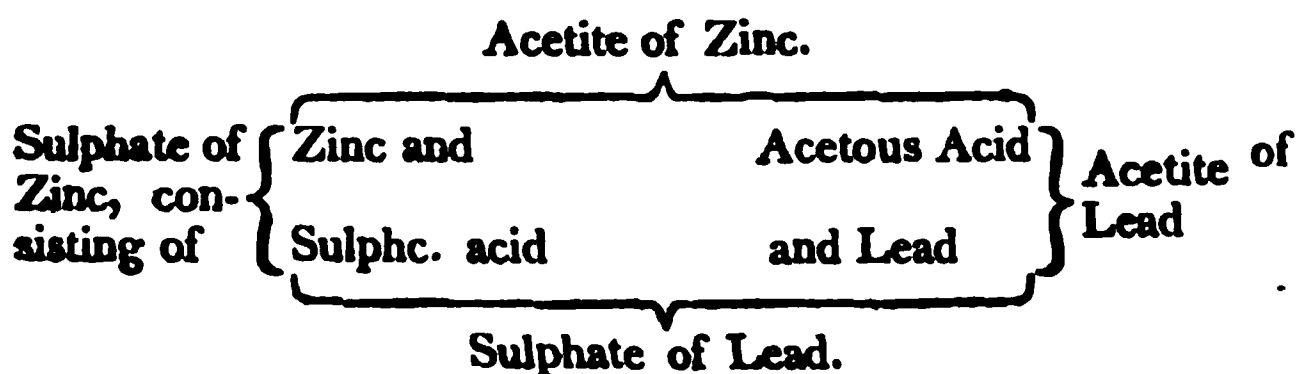
the salt ; and, after the same interval, the mixture will exhibit, by its taste, marks of uncombined soda. This proves, that the larger quantity of the oxide must have detached a considerable portion of muriatic acid from the soda, though the oxide has a weaker affinity for that acid than the soda possesses.

It is in consequence of the same law, that, if we take a given quantity of muriatic acid, and add to it, at the same time, a portion of barytes, and another of potash either of which would have been precisely sufficient for saturating the acid, if separately applied, the whole of the barytes does not combine with the whole of the acid, to the complete exclusion of the potash ; but the latter substance, also, combines with a portion of the acid. Hence muriate of barytes, and muriate of potash, are both formed, and a part of each base remains uncombined. According to Berthollet, the absolute weight of any body, multiplied by its affinity, constitutes its mass ; and bodies act not by their affinities, abstractedly considered, but by their mass ; a larger mass compensating a weaker affinity. Thus supposing, for the sake of illustration, (what is not accurate in fact) that the affinity of barytes for muriatic acid is twice as strong as that of potash, or that these affinities are respectively denoted by the numbers 4 and 2, the same mass will result from 4 parts of barytes as from 8 of potash ; because the same product (16) is obtained, in each instance, by multiplying the number indicating the affinity into that denoting the quantity. In this case, therefore, to divide a portion of muriatic acid, between barytes and potash, these two bodies should be employed in the proportion of 2 of the former to 4 of the latter.

The important influence of mass has been extensively traced by Berthollet, and has been applied by him to the explanation of a great variety of chemical phenomena. When the student has enlarged his acquaintance with this science, and has become familiar with its common facts, it will be expedient that he should read attentively the "Chemical Statics" of Berthollet, and his "Researches into the Laws of Affinity."

XVI. *Double elective affinity exemplified.*—In a watery solution of sulphate of zinc, immerse a thin sheet of lead : The lead will remain unaltered, as also will the sulphate of zinc, because zinc attracts sulphuric acid more strongly

than lead. But let acetite of lead be mixed with sulphate of zinc: The lead will then go over to the sulphuric acid, while the zinc passes to the acetous. The sulphate of lead, being insoluble, will fall down in the state of a white powder; but the acetite of zinc will remain in solution. The changes that occur in this experiment will be better understood from the following scheme:



The vertical brackets include the original compounds, viz. sulphate of zinc, and acetite of lead; and the horizontal brackets point out the new ones, viz. acetite of zinc and sulphate of lead. By the point of the bracket turning upwards, it is denoted, that the acetite of zinc remains in solution; and, by that of the lower one being directed downwards, it is meant to express, that the sulphate of lead falls down, or is precipitated. In cases of double decomposition, where both substances are precipitated, they are both placed beneath the lower bracket; and, when both remain in solution, above the upper one.

The phenomena of double affinity have been shewn by Berthollet, to be equally influenced by the circumstance of quantity, with those of single affinity. The experiments of this philosopher have proved, that a complete exchange of bases, which might have been expected from the enunciation of the general law, happens in very few instances. Numerous examples of these exceptions may be seen, p. 103. and 106. of his "Researches."

CHAP. III.

PROPERTIES AND EFFECTS OF THE MATTER OF HEAT,
OR CALORIC.

SECT. I.

Effects of Caloric of Temperature, or Uncombined Caloric.

1. *Caloric expands all bodies.*—1. The expansion of liquids is shown by that of the mercury of a thermometer, or by immersing in hot water a glass matrass (pl. 1. fig. 4.,) filled, up to a mark in the neck, with spirit of wine, tinged with any colouring substance. The spirit expands immediately when heated, and would overflow if not placed in a cooler situation. The degree of expansion produced in different liquids, by similar elevations of temperature, varies very considerably. Thus, water expands much more than mercury, and alcohol more than water (See a table of the expansion of liquids, in "Thomson's Chemistry," I. 345.) 2. The expansion of æriform bodies is shewn, by holding, near the fire, a bladder filled with air, the neck of which is closely tied, so as to prevent the inclosed air from escaping. The bladder will soon be fully distended, and may even be burst by continuing and increasing the heat. 3. The expansion of solids is evinced, by heating a rod of iron, of such a length as to be included, when cold, between two points, and the diameter of which is such, as barely to allow it to pass through an iron ring. When heated, it will have become sensibly longer; and it will be found incapable of passing through the ring.

The degree of expansion is not the same for all solids, and even differs materially in substances of the same class. Thus, the metals expand in the following order, the most expansible being placed first; zinc, lead, tin, copper, bismuth, iron, steel, antimony, platinum.

All the above bodies return again, on cooling, to their former dimensions.

II. Construction of the Thermometer founded on the principle of expansion.—The thermometer is an instrument of so much importance, that it may be expedient to explain the construction of the different kinds which are required in chemical researches.

The instrument employed by Sanctorio, to whom the invention of the thermometer is generally ascribed, was of a very simple kind, and measured variations of temperature by the variable expansion of a confined portion of air. To prepare this instrument, a glass tube (pl. 1. fig. 9.) is to be provided, eighteen inches long, open at one end, and blown into a ball at the other. On applying a warm hand to the ball, the included air expands, and a portion is expelled through the open end of the tube. In this state, the aperture is quickly immersed in a cup filled with any coloured liquid, which ascends into the tube, as the air in the ball contracts by cooling. The instrument is now prepared. An increase of temperature forces the liquor down the tube ; and, on the contrary, the application of cold causes its ascent. These effects may be exhibited, by alternately applying the hand to the ball, and then blowing on it with a pair of bellows ; and, by the application of a graduated scale, the amount of the expansion may be measured.

The ball of the above instrument, it must be obvious, cannot be conveniently applied to measure the temperature of liquids. To adapt it to this purpose, a slight variation, may be made in its construction, as represented fig. 8. *a*. Other modifications have also been made by different philosophers. One of the most useful and simple forms is represented fig. 8. *b*. It consists merely of a tube of very small bore, from 9 to 12 inches long, at one end of which is blown a ball, from half an inch to an inch in diameter, which is afterwards blackened by paint, or by the smoke of a candle. A small column of coloured liquid, about an inch in length, is then introduced, by a manipulation similar to that already described. To fit the instrument for use, this column ought to be stationary, about the middle of the tube, at the common temperature of the atmosphere. The slightest variation of temperature occasions

the movement of the coloured liquid; and a scale of equal parts measures the amount of the effect.

An insuperable objection to the air thermometer, is, that it is affected, not only by changes of temperature, but, by variations of atmospheric pressure. Its utility consists in the great amount of the expansion of air, which, by a given elevation of temperature, is increased in bulk above twenty times more than mercury. Hence it is adapted to detect minute changes of temperature, which the mercurial thermometer would scarcely discover.

An important modification of the air thermometer has been invented by Mr. Leslie, and employed by him with great advantage, in his interesting researches respecting heat. To this instrument he has given the name of, the Differential Thermometer. Its construction is as follows: "Two glass tubes of unequal length, each terminating in a hollow ball, and having their bores somewhat widened at the other ends, (a small portion of sulphuric acid, tinged with carmine, being introduced into the ball of the longer tube,) are joined together by the flame of a blow pipe, and afterwards bent nearly into the shape of the letter U, (see fig. 7.) the one flexure being made just below the joining, where the small cavity facilitates the adjustment of the instrument. This, by a little dexterity, is performed, by forcing with the heat of the hand, a few minute globules of air from the one cavity into the other. The balls are blown as equal as the eye can judge, and from 4-10ths to 7-10ths of an inch diameter. The tubes are such as are drawn for thermometers, only with wider bores; that of the short one, to which the scale is affixed, must have an exact calibre of 1-50th, or 1-60th, of an inch. The bore of the long tube need not be so regular, but should be visibly larger, as the coloured liquid will then move quicker under any impression. Each leg of the instrument is from three to six inches in height, and the balls are from two to four inches apart. A moment's attention to the construction of this instrument will satisfy us, that it is affected only by the *difference* of heat in the corresponding balls; and is calculated to measure such difference with peculiar nicety. As long as both balls are of the same temperature, whatever this may be, the air contained in both will have the same elasticity, and, consequently, the intercluded coloured liquor, being pressed

equally in opposite directions, must remain stationary. But if, for instance, the ball which holds a portion of the liquor be warmer than the other, the superior elasticity of the confined air will drive the liquid forwards, and make it rise, in the opposite branch, above the zero, to an elevation proportional to the excess of elasticity, or of heat." The amount of the effect is ascertained by a graduated scale, the interval between freezing and boiling being distinguished into 100 equal degrees. This instrument, it must be obvious, cannot be applied to measure variations in the temperature of the surrounding atmosphere, for the reason already assigned. It is peculiarly adapted to ascertain the difference of the temperatures of two contiguous spots in the same atmosphere ; for example, to determine the heat in the focus of a reflector.

Thermometers, filled with spirit of wine, are best adapted to the measurement of very low temperatures, at which mercury would freeze. The amount of the expansion of alcohol, also, which exceeds that of mercury above eight times, fits it for ascertaining very slight variations of temperature. But it cannot be applied to measure high degrees of heat ; because the conversion of the spirit into vapour would burst the instrument.

The fluid, best adapted for filling thermometers, is mercury, which, though it expands less in amount than air, or alcohol, still undergoes this change to a sufficient degree : and, in consequence of its difficult conversion into vapour, may be applied to the measurement of more elevated temperatures. As a considerable saving of expence will accrue to the experimentalist who is able to construct mercurial thermometers, I shall offer some rules for this purpose. In general, however, I should deem it preferable merely to superintend their construction, and to be satisfied, by actual inspection, that the necessary accuracy is observed ; because much time must be unavoidably lost, in acquiring the manual skill which is essential to construct them neatly.

Thermometer tubes may be had at the glass-house, and of various philosophical-instrument makers. In purchasing them, those should be rejected that are not hermetically sealed at both ends ; because the smallest condensation of moisture, which must take place when air is freely admitted within the tube, is injurious to the accuracy of the in-

strument. A small bottle of elastic gum should be provided, in the side of which a brass valve (N. 8.) is fixed, or a piece of brass perforated by a small hole, to be occasionally stopped by the hand. A blow-pipe is also an essential part of the apparatus; and, in addition to one of the ordinary kind, it will be found useful to have one which is supplied with air by a pair of double bellows, worked by the foot.

Before proceeding to the construction of the thermometer, it is necessary to ascertain, that the tube is of equal diameter in different parts. This is done, by breaking off both of the sealed ends, immersing one of them an inch or two deep in clean and dry mercury, and then closing the other end with the finger. On withdrawing the tube from the mercury, a small column of that fluid remains in it, the length of which is to be examined, by laying the tube horizontally on a graduated ruler.* By inclining the tube, this column may be gradually moved through its whole length; and if the tube be of uniform bore, it will measure the same in every part. Such a degree of perfection, however, is scarcely ever to be observed throughout tubes of considerable length; but, in general, a portion of the tube will be found perfect, of sufficient length for a thermometer, and this part is to be broken off.

On one end of the tube let the neck of the elastic bottle, be firmly tied; and let the other end be heated by the flame of the blow-pipe, till the glass softens. The softened part must then be pressed, by a clean piece of iron, into the form of a rounded button; and to this the flame, of the lamp must be steadily applied, till it acquires a white heat, and seems about to enter into fusion. To prevent its falling on one side, the tube, during this time, must be constantly turned round by the hand. When the heated part appears perfectly soft, remove it quickly from the lamp, and, holding the tube vertically, with the elastic bottle uppermost, press this last gently with the hand. The glass will be blown into a small ball, but not into one sufficiently thin for the purpose. To this the flame of the lamp must again be applied, turning it quickly round;

* If the tube be of an extremely small bore, the mercury will not enter, and must be drawn in by the action of the elastic bottle, and not by the mouth.

and, on a second or third repetition of the process of blowing, the ball will be completely formed. The proportion of the size of the ball to the bore of the tube, can only be learned by some experience.

To fill the ball, which has been thus formed, with mercury, the air must first be expelled by holding it over the flame of an Argand's lamp, and then quickly immersing the open end of the tube in very clean and dry quicksilver. As the ball cools, the mercury will ascend, and will completely fill it. (N. 9.) Let a paper funnel be tied firmly over the open end of the tube; into this pour a small portion of quicksilver, and apply the heat of the lamp to the ball. The quicksilver in the ball will thus be expanded, and a portion will pass into the paper cone, and will return again into its place as the bulb cools. By this process, the mercury is deprived of any adhering portion of air and moisture. To estimate whether the proper quantity of quicksilver has been left in the instrument, immerse the ball first in ice-cold water, and then in the mouth. The space between these two points will comprise 63 degrees, or between 1-3d and 1-4th of the whole space between the freezing and boiling points of water. If the empty part of the tube exceeds, in length, the portion thus filled by the expanded quicksilver, between three and four times, we may proceed (when an instrument is wanted with a scale including only from 32° to 212°) to seal it hermetically; which is done as follows; The part to be sealed is first heated with the blow-pipe, and drawn out to a fine capillary tube; the bulb is then heated, till a few particles of quicksilver have fallen from the top of the tube: At this moment, the flame of another candle is directed, by the blow-pipe, on the capillary part of the tube, the candle is withdrawn from the ball, and the tube is sealed, at the instant when the mercury begins to descend. If this operation has been skilfully performed, so as to leave no air in the tube, the whole of the tube will be filled with quicksilver on holding it with the ball uppermost.

To have very large degrees, the ball must bear a considerable proportion to the tube; but this extent of scale cannot be obtained without sacrificing, in some measure, the sensibility of the instrument. The whole of the process of constructing thermometers, neatly and accurately, is connected with the possession of manual skill, which

practice only can confer ; and it is scarcely possible, without the most toilsome minuteness, to describe all the necessary precautions and manipulations. These will readily suggest themselves to a person who carries the above instructions into effect.

In graduating thermometers, the first step consists in taking the two fixed points. The freezing point is ascertained, by immersing, in thawing snow or ice, the ball and part of the stem ; so that the mercury, when stationary, shall barely appear above the surface. At this place let a mark be made with a file. In taking the boiling point, considerable caution is required ; and for reasons, which will afterwards be stated, attention must be paid to the state of the barometer, the height of which, at the time, should be precisely 29. 8. A tin vessel is to be provided, four or five inches longer than the thermometer, and furnished with a cover, in which are two holes. Through one of these, the thermometer stem must be passed, (the bulb being within the vessel,) so that the part, at which the boiling point is expected, may be just in sight. The other hole may be left open ; and the cover being fixed in its place, the vessel, containing a few inches of water at the bottom, is to be set on the fire. The thermometer will presently be wholly surrounded by steam ; and when the mercury becomes stationary in the stem, its place must be marked. The scale of Fahrenheit is formed by transferring the intermediate space to paper by a pair of compasses, and dividing it into 180 degrees, the lowest being called 32, and the highest 212°. The scale of other countries, however, differs considerably ; but these variations do not prevent the comparison of observations with different instruments, when the freezing and boiling points of water are agreed upon as fixed data. In the Appendix, rules will be given for converting the degrees of other scales to that of Fahrenheit.

III. *Equal increments or decrements of heat, produce equal increments or decrements of expansion in the mercury of the thermometer.*

It might be doubted, whether the additions of similar quantities of heat are accompanied by similar increments of expansion in the mercury of the thermometer ; in other words, supposing that a given quantity of caloric occasions the ascent of the mercury through 20 degrees, whether a

second addition, equal to the first, will raise it through precisely 20 more? This question is determined in the affirmative by the following experiment, which proves, that the arithmetical mean between two temperatures is attended by a mean expansion of the mercury of the thermometer. Mix a pound of water at 172° , with a pound at 32° . Half the excess of the uncombined caloric, in the hot water, will pass to the colder portion; that is, the hot water will be cooled 70° , and the cold will receive 70° of temperature; therefore, $172 - 70$, or $32 + 70 = 102$, will give the heat of the mixture. To attain the arithmetical mean exactly, several precautions must be observed.—See CRAWFORD on *Animal Heat*, p. 95, &c.

The subsequent experiments of De Luc, however, have shewn, that the ratio of expansion does not, *strictly*, keep pace with the actual increments of temperature; and that the amount of the expansion increases with the temperature. Thus the expansion of the mercury from 32 to 122, the first half of the scale, is to its expansion from 122 to 212, the higher half, as 14 to 15.

IV. *Uncombined caloric has a tendency to an equilibrium.*—Any number of different bodies, at various temperatures, if placed under similar circumstances of exposure, all acquire a common temperature. Thus if, in an atmosphere at 60° , we place iron filings heated to redness, boiling water, and various other bodies of different temperatures, they will soon affect the thermometer in the same degree. The same equalization of temperature is attained, though less quickly, when a heated body is placed in the vacuum of an air-pump. The rate of cooling in air, is to that *in vacuo*, the temperatures being equal, nearly as five to two.

V. *Caloric escapes from bodies in two different modes.*—Part of it finds its way through space, independently of other matter, and with immeasurable velocity. In this state it has been called, radiant heat, or radiant caloric.

RADIANT CALORIC exhibits several interesting properties.

1. *Its reflection (a.)* Those surfaces, that reflect light most perfectly, are not equally adapted to the reflection of caloric. Thus, a glass mirror, which reflects light with great effect when held before a blazing fire, scarcely returns any heat, and the mirror itself becomes warm. On the contrary, a polished plate of tin, or a silver spoon,

when similarly placed, reflects, to the hand, a very sensible degree of warmth; and the metal itself remains cool. Metals, therefore, are much better reflectors than glass; and they possess this property, exactly according to their degree of polish.

(*b.*) Caloric is reflected according to the same law that regulates the reflection of light. This is proved by an interesting experiment of M. Pictet; the means of repeating which may be attained at a moderate expence. Provide two tin reflectors, (*a.* and *b.* fig. 45.) which may be 12 inches diameter, and segments of a sphere of nine inches radius. Each of these must be furnished, on its convex side, with the means of supporting it in a perpendicular position on a proper stand. Place the mirrors opposite to each other on a table, at the distance of from six to twelve feet. In the focus of one, let the ball of an air thermometer, *c.*, be situated; and in that of the other, suspend a ball of iron, about four ounces, in weight, and heated below ignition, or a small matras of hot water, *d.*, having previously interposed a screen before the thermometer. Immediately on withdrawing the screen, the depression of the column of liquid, in the air thermometer, evinces an increase of temperature in the instrument. In this experiment, the caloric flows first from the heated ball to the nearest reflector; from this it is transmitted, in parallel rays, to the surface of the second reflector, by which it is collected into a focus on the instrument. This is precisely the course that is followed by radiant light; for if the flame of a taper be substituted for the iron ball, the image of the candle will appear precisely on that spot (a sheet of paper being presented for its reception) where the rays of caloric were before concentrated.

(*c.*) When a glass vessel, filled with ice, or snow, is substituted for the heated ball, the course of the coloured liquid in the thermometer will be precisely in the opposite direction; for its ascent will shew, that the air in the ball is cooled by this arrangement. This experiment, which appears, at first view, to indicate the reflection of cold, presents, in fact, only the reflection of heat, but in an opposite direction; the ball of the thermometer being, in this instance, the hotter body.

(*d.*) In Mr. Leslie's "Enquiry into the Nature, &c. of Heat," a variety of important experiments are detailed,

which shew the influence of covering the reflectors with various substances, or of mechanically changing the nature of their surfaces, on their power of returning caloric.

2. Caloric is *refracted*, also, according to the same law that regulates the refraction of light. This interesting discovery we owe to Dr. Herschell, whose experiments and apparatus, however, cannot be understood without the assistance of a plate. For this reason, I refer to his paper in the 90th Vol. of the Philosophical transactions, or in the 7th Vol. of the Philosophical Magazine.

3. The nature of the *surface* of bodies has an important influence over their power of *radiating* caloric.

To exhibit this influence experimentally, let a canister of planished block tin, forming a cube of six or eight inches, be provided, having an orifice at the middle of its upper side, from half an inch to an inch diameter, and the same in height. This orifice is intended to receive a cap having a small hole through which a thermometer is inserted, so that its bulb may reach the centre of the canister. Let one side of the canister be covered with black paint; destroy the polish of another side, by scratching it with sand paper; tarnish a third with quicksilver; and leave the fourth bright. Then fill the vessel with boiling water. The radiation of caloric from the blackened side is so much more abundant than from the others, as to be even sensible to the hand. Place it before a reflector, in lieu of the heated iron ball already described. The thermometer, in the focus of the second reflector, will indicate the highest temperature, or most copious radiation of caloric, when the blackened side is presented to the reflector; less when the tarnished or scratched side is turned towards it; and least of all from the polished side.

4. These varieties in the radiating power of different surfaces, are attended, as might be expected, with corresponding variations in the *rate of cooling*. If water in a tin vessel, all of whose sides are polished, cools through a given number of degrees in eighty-one minutes; it will descend through the same number in seventy-two minutes, if the surface be tarnished with quicksilver. The time of cooling, also, of water inclosed in a clean tin ball, is about one-half that of water, in the same ball covered with oiled paper. Blackening the surface with paint, on the same

principle, accelerates greatly the rate of cooling. These facts teach us, that vessels, in which fluids are to be long kept hot, should have their surfaces brightly polished; and they explain, among other things, the superiority of metallic tea-pots over those of earthen-ware.

5. Radiant caloric is *absorbed* with different facility by different surfaces. This is only stating, in other terms, that surfaces are endowed with various powers of reflecting caloric. It may be proper, however, to offer some illustrations of the principle under this form.

(a.) Expose the bulb of a sensible thermometer to the direct rays of the sun. On a hot summer's day it will probably rise, in this climate, to 108° . (Watson's Essay's v. 193.) Cover it with indian ink, and again expose it in a similar manner. During the evaporation of the moisture it will fall; but as soon as the coating becomes dry, it will ascend to 118° , or upwards, of Fahrenheit, or 10° higher than when uncovered with the pigment. This cannot be explained, by supposing that the black coating is gifted with the power of retaining caloric, and preventing its escape; because, from experiments already related, it appears, that a similar coating accelerates the cooling of a body to which it is applied.

(b.) Colour has considerable influence over the absorption of caloric. This is shewn by the following very simple experiment of Dr. Franklin.

On a winter's day, when the ground is covered with snow, take four pieces of woollen cloth, of equal dimensions but of different colours, viz. black, blue, brown, and white, and lay them on the surface of the snow, in the immediate neighbourhood of each other. In a few hours, the black cloth will have sunk considerably below the surface; the blue almost as much; the brown evidently less; and the white will remain precisely in its former situation. Thus it appears, that the sun's rays are absorbed by the dark coloured cloth, and excite such a durable heat, as to melt the snow underneath; but they have not the power of penetrating the white. Hence the preference, generally given to dark coloured clothes during the winter season, and to light coloured ones in summer, appears to be founded on reason.

(c.) This experiment has been varied by Mr. Davy, in a manner which may be repeated at any season of the year.

Take six similar pieces of sheet copper, each about an inch square, and colour the one white, another yellow, a third red, the fourth green, the fifth blue, and the sixth black. On the centre of one side of each piece, put a small portion of a mixture of oil and wax, or cerate, which melts at about 76° . Then expose their coloured surfaces, under precisely equal circumstances, to the direct rays of the sun. The cerate on the black plate will begin to melt perceptibly before the red; the blue next; then the green and the red; and, lastly, the yellow. The white will scarcely be affected, when the black is in complete fusion.

VI. Caloric passes, also, but much more slowly, through solid and liquid bodies, which are then termed, *conductors of caloric*.

1. Solid bodies convey heat in all directions, upwards, downwards, and laterally; as may be shown, by heating the centre of an iron rod, and holding it in different directions.

2. Some bodies conduct caloric much more quickly than others. Coat two rods, of equal length and thickness, the one of glass, the other of iron, with wax, at one end of each only; and then apply heat to the uncoated ends. The wax will be melted much sooner from the end of the iron rod, than from the glass one; which shows, that iron conducts heat more quickly than glass.

Even the different metals possess very different powers of conducting caloric. An approximation to the degree in which they possess this property, may be attained by the following method, originally employed by Dr. Ingenhouz. Procure several solid cylinders, or rods, of the same size and shape, but of different metals. They may be six inches long, and $\frac{1}{4}$ th in diameter. Coat them, within about an inch of one end, with bees wax, by dipping them into this substance when melted, and allowing the covering to congeal. Let an iron heater be provided, in which small holes have been drilled, that exactly receive the clean ends of the cylinders. After heating it below ignition, insert the cylinders in their places. The conducting power may be estimated by the length of wax coating melted from each in a given time. According to the experiments of Dr. Ingenhouz, the metals may be arranged in the following order: Silver possesses the highest conducting power; next gold; then copper and tin, which are

nearly equal; and, below these, platina, iron, steel, and lead, which are greatly inferior to the rest.

3. Liquid and aeriform bodies convey heat on a different principle from that observed in solids, viz. by an actual change in the situation of their particles.

(a.) Take a glass tube, eight or ten inches long, and about an inch in diameter. Pour into the bottom part, for about the depth of an inch, a little water tinged with litmus, and then fill up the tube with common water, pouring on the latter extremely gently, so as to keep the two strata quite distinct. When the tube is heated at the bottom, the cold infusion will ascend, and will tinge the whole mass. But if the upper part of the tube be heated, the coloured liquor will remain at the bottom.

(b.) Into a cylindrical glass jar, four inches diameter, and twelve or fourteen deep, let a circular piece of ice be fitted three-and-a-half inches thick, and of rather less diameter than the jar. Or water may be poured into the jar to the depth of three-and-a-half inches, and allowed to congeal by exposure to a freezing atmosphere, or by surrounding it with a mixture of snow and salt. The ice is to be secured in its place by two slips of wood, crossing each other like two diameters of a circle, and at right angles to each other. Pour, over the cake of ice, water of 32° temperature, to the depth of two inches; and on its surface let there float a shallow circular wooden box, perforated with holes. From the cock of a tea-urn, filled with boiling water, and raised so that its spout may be above the top of the jar, suspend a number of moistened threads, the lower ends of which rest on the surface of the box. By this arrangement, when the cock is turned, the hot water will trickle down the threads, and will have its fall considerably broken. It will then spread over the surface of the box, and pass through the perforated holes to the cold water beneath, over which it will float without mixing with it. Let the jar be thus completely filled with hot water. The ice will remain unmelted for several hours at the bottom of the vessel.

(c.) Fill a similar jar with hot water; and, having provided a cake of ice, of equal size with the former one, let it be placed on the surface of the water. In about three minutes, the whole will be melted. Both these experiments are more striking, if the water used, for forming the

cakes of ice, be previously coloured with litmus ; for, in the latter experiment, the descending currents of cold water are thus made apparent.

(*d.*) These experiments, may be varied, by freezing, in the bottom of a tube, a portion of water, about two inches in depth. Then fill the tube with water of the common temperature, and hold it inclined over an Argand's lamp, so that the upper portion only of the tube may be heated. When thus disposed, the water may be made to boil violently at the surface, and yet the ice will not be melted. But if the experiment be reversed, and (the ice floating on the surface) heat be applied to the bottom of the tube, the ice will be liquefied in a few seconds.

(*e.*) Substituting water of the temperature of 41° for the boiling water used in experiment (*c.*) Count Rumford found, that, in a given time, a much greater quantity of ice was melted by the cooler water. From these facts, he concluded, that water is a perfect non-conductor of caloric, and that it propagates caloric only in one direction, viz. upwards, in consequence of the motions, which it occasions among the particles of the fluid. The Count inferred also, that if these motions could be suspended, caloric would cease to pass through water ; and, with the view of deciding this question, he made the following experiments, which admit of being easily repeated. A cylindrical tin vessel must previously be provided, two inches in diameter, and two-and-a-half inches deep, having a moveable cover, perforated with a small aperture, for transmitting the stem of a thermometer, which is to be inserted so that its bulb may occupy the centre of the vessel.

(*f.*) Fill this vessel with water of the temperature of the atmosphere ; let the cover be put in its place ; and let the whole apparatus, except the scale of the thermometer, be immersed in water, which is to be kept boiling over a lamp. Observe how long a time is required to raise the water from its temperature at the outset to 180° , and remove it from its situation. Note, also, how long it takes to return to its former temperature.

(*g.*) Repeat the experiment, having previously dissolved in the water 200 grains of common starch. The thermometer will now require about half as long again to arrive at the same temperature. A similar retardation, and to a greater amount, is produced by the mixture of eider-

down, cotton-wool, and various other substances, which are not chemically soluble in water, and which can diminish its conducting power in no other way than by obstructing the motion of its particles.

This inference, however, respecting the non-conducting power of water, has been completely set aside by the subsequent enquiries of Dr. Thomson and Mr. Murray, especially by a most decisive experiment of the latter. To establish the conducting power of water, it was justly deemed indispensable, that caloric should be proved to be propagated through that fluid downwards. This, on actual trial, it appeared to be; but it was objected, that the sides of the containing vessel might be the conductor. To obviate this objection, Mr. Murray contrived to congeal water into the form of a jar, capable of holding liquids. This was separately filled with linseed oil and with mercury. At a proper distance below the surface, the bulb of a thermometer was placed; and on the surface of the liquid rested a flat iron vessel, containing boiling water. Under these circumstances, the thermometer invariably rose; and though it ascended only a very few degrees, yet it must be recollected, that the cooling power of the sides of the vessel would effectually prevent any considerable elevation of temperature. This experiment, in conjunction with others, decisively proves, that water is a conductor, though a slow or imperfect one, of caloric.

VII. *Uncombined caloric promotes the action of chemical affinity.*—Thus, lead and tin do not combine till melted together. The fangs of zinc and copper may be intimately blended together; and yet, with the aid of a magnifier, the two metals may be perceived to be perfectly distinct. When melted in a crucible, however, they combine, and form a homogeneous mass. In other instances, caloric serves as the mean of separating bodies already united. Thus, lead and sulphur are disunited by exposure in a high temperature. In favouring the operation of affinity, caloric seems to act as a solvent; and, in decomposing bodies, its effects are perhaps explicable on the principle of elective affinity. Thus, in the foregoing example, sulphur, in a high temperature, or when surrounded by a great quantity of uncombined caloric, is more powerfully attracted by caloric than by lead.

SECT. II.

Caloric the Cause of Fluidity.

I. *The temperature of melting snow, or of thawing ice, is uniformly the same at all times, and in all places.*—This may be ascertained by the thermometer, which will always, when immersed in liquefying ice or snow, point to 32° of Fahrenheit, whatsoever may be the height of the barometer, or the elevation, above the sea, of the place where the experiment is made.

II. *The sensible heat, or temperature, of ice, is not changed by liquefaction.*—A thermometer in pounded ice stands at 32° , and at the very same point in the water, which results from the liquefaction of ice.

III. *Yet the ice, during liquefaction, must absorb much caloric.*—Expose a pound of water at 32° , and a pound of ice at 32° , in a room, the temperature of which is several degrees above the freezing point, and uniformly the same during the experiment. The water will arrive at the temperature of the room, several hours before the ice is melted; and the melted ice will give, as before its liquefaction, the temperature of 32° . Yet the ice must, during the whole of this time, have been receiving caloric, because, according to Exp. IV. § 1. a hotter body can never be in contact with a colder one, without imparting heat to the latter. The caloric, therefore, which has entered the ice, but is not to be found in it by the thermometer, must be chemically combined; just as muriatic acid, by union with lime, loses all its characteristic properties.

IV. *The quantity of uncombined caloric that enters into a pound of ice, and becomes united, during liquefaction, may be learned by experiment.*—To a pound of water, at 172° , add a pound of ice at 32° . The temperature will not be the arithmetical mean, but much below it, viz. 32° . All the uncombined caloric of the hot water has therefore disappeared. From 172° take 32° ; the remainder, 140° , shows the quantity of caloric that combines with a pound of ice during liquefaction; that is, as much caloric is absorbed by, and unites chemically with, a pound of ice, during its conversion into water, as would raise a pound of water from 32° to 172° .

V. *Other examples of the absorption of caloric, during the liquefaction of bodies*, are furnished by the mixture of snow and nitric acid, or of snow and common salt, both of which, in common language, produce intense cold.*

1. Dilute a portion of nitric acid with an equal weight of water; and, when the mixture has cooled, add to it a quantity of light fresh-fallen snow. On immersing the thermometer in the mixture, a very considerable reduction of temperature will be observed. This is owing to the absorption, and intimate fixation, of the uncombined caloric of the mixture, by the liquefying snow.

2. Mix quickly together equal weights of fresh-fallen snow at 32° , and of common salt cooled by exposure to a freezing atmosphere down to 32° . The two solid bodies, on admixture, will rapidly liquefy; and the thermometer will sink 32° , or to 0. To understand this experiment, it must be recollected, that the snow and salt, though at the freezing temperature of water, have each a considerable portion of uncombined caloric. Now, salt has a strong affinity for water; but the union cannot take place while the water continues solid. In order, therefore, to act on the salt, the snow absorbs all the uncombined caloric required for its liquefaction; and during this change, the free caloric, both of the snow and of the salt, amounting to 32° , becomes latent, and is concealed in the solution. This solution remains in a liquid state at 0 of Fahrenheit; but if a greater degree of cold be applied to it, the salt separates in a concrete form.

3. Most neutral salts, also, during solution in water, absorb much caloric; and the cold, thus generated, is so intense as to freeze water, and even to congeal mercury. The former experiment, however, (*viz.* the congelation of water,) may easily be repeated on a summer's day. Add to 32 drachms of water, 11 drachms of muriate of ammonia, 10 of nitrate of potash, and 16 of sulphate of soda, all finely powdered. The salts may be dissolved separately, in the order set down. A thermometer, put into the solution, will show, that the cold produced is at or below freezing; and a little water, in a thin glass tube, being immersed in the solution, will be frozen in a few minutes.

* The extraordinary powers of muriate of lime and snow, in generating cold, will be described hereafter.

Various other freezing mixtures are described in Mr. Walker's papers in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1787, 88, 89, 95, and 1801 ; of which the Table, given in the Appendix, exhibits an abstract.

4. Muriate of lime, when mixed with snow, produces a most intense degree of cold. This property was discovered some years ago by M. Lovitz, of St. Petersburg, and has been since applied, in this country, to the congelation of mercury on a very extensive scale. The proportions, which answer best, are about equal weights of the salt finely powdered, and of fresh-fallen and light snow. On mixing these together, and immersing a thermometer in the mixture, the mercury sinks with great rapidity. For measuring exactly the cold produced, a spirit-thermometer, graduated to 50° below 0 of Fahrenheit, or still lower, should be employed. A few pounds of the salt are sufficient to congeal a large mass of mercury. By means of 13lbs. of the muriate, and an equal weight of snow, Messrs. Pepys and Allen froze 56 lbs. of quicksilver into a solid mass. The mixture of the whole quantity of salt and snow, however, was not made at once, but part was expended in cooling the materials themselves.

On a small scale it may be sufficient to employ two or three pounds of the salt. Let the mercury, in a very thin glass retort, be immersed, first in a mixture of one pound of each ; and, when this has ceased to act, let another mixture be prepared. The second will never fail to congeal the quicksilver.

In plate IV. fig. 42. a very simple and cheap apparatus is represented, which I have generally employed to freeze mercury. The dimensions will be given in the description of the plates. See Appendix.

The salt thus expended may be again evaporated, and crystallized for future experiments.

The reader, who wishes for farther particulars respecting these experiments, is referred to the *Philosophical Magazine*, Vol. III. p. 76.

VI. *On the contrary, liquids, in becoming solid, evolve or give out caloric, or, in common language, produce heat.*

1. Water, if kept perfectly free from agitation, may be cooled down below 32° ; but, on shaking it, it immediately congeals, and the temperature rises to 32° .

2. Expose to the atmosphere, when at a temperature below freezing, (for example, at 25° of Fahrenheit,) two equal quantities of water, in one only of which about a fourth of its weight of salt has been dissolved. The saline solution will be gradually cooled, without freezing, to 25° . The pure water will gradually descend to 32° , and will there remain stationary a considerable time before it congeals. Yet while thus stationary, it cannot be doubted, that the pure water is yielding caloric to the atmosphere, equally with the saline solution; for it is impossible that a warmer body can be surrounded by a cooler one, without imparting caloric to the latter. The reason of this equable temperature is well explained by Dr. Crawford. (*On Heat*, p. 80.) Water, he observes, during freezing, is acted upon by two opposite powers: It is deprived of caloric by exposure to a medium, whose temperature is below 32° ; and it is supplied with caloric, by the evolution of that principle from itself, viz. of that portion which constituted its fluidity. As these powers are exactly equal, the temperature of the water must remain unchanged, till the caloric of fluidity is all evolved.

3. The evolution of caloric, during the congelation of water, is well illustrated by the following experiment of Dr. Crawford:—Into a round tin vessel put a pound of powdered ice; surround this by a mixture of snow and salt in a larger vessel; and stir the ice in the inner one, till its temperature is reduced to 4° of Fahrenheit. To the ice thus cooled, add a pound of water at 32° . One-fifth of this will be frozen; and the temperature of the ice will rise from 4° to 32° . In this instance, the caloric, evolved by the congelation of one-fifth of a pound of water, raises the temperature of a pound of ice 28 degrees.

4. To a saturated solution of sulphate of potash in water, or of any salt that is insoluble in alcohol, add an equal measure of alcohol. The alcohol, attracting the water more strongly than the salt retains it, precipitates the salt, and considerable heat is produced.

SECT. III.

Caloric the Cause of Vapour.

I. Every liquid, when of the same degree of chemical purity, and under equal circumstances of atmospheric pressure, has one peculiar point of temperature, at which it invariably boils.—Thus, pure water always boils at 212° , alcohol at 176° , and ether at 98° Fahrenheit. The boiling point of water may be readily ascertained, by immersing a thermometer in water boiling over the fire. As there is some danger in applying flame directly to a vessel containing either ether or alcohol, the ebullition of these fluids may be shewn, by immersing the vessel containing them in water, the temperature of which may be gradually raised. The appearance of boiling is owing to the formation of vapour at the bottom of the vessel, and its escape through the heated fluid above it.

II. Steam has exactly the same temperature as boiling water.—Let a tin vessel be provided, having two holes in its cover, one of which is just large enough to admit the stem of a thermometer. Fill it partly with water, and let the bulb of the thermometer be an inch or two above the surface of the water, leaving the other aperture open for the escape of vapour. When the water boils, the thermometer, surrounded by steam, will rise to 212° , which is precisely the temperature of the water beneath: Yet water, placed on a fire, continues to receive heat, very abundantly, even when boiling hot; and as this heat is not appreciable by the thermometer, it must exist in the steam, in a state of chemical union.

III. The boiling point of the same fluid varies, under different degrees of atmospheric pressure.—Thus, water, which has been removed from the fire, and ceased to boil, has its ebullition renewed, when it is placed under a receiver, the air of which is quickly exhausted by an air pump. Alcohol and ether, confined under an exhausted receiver, boil violently at the temperature of the atmosphere. In general, liquids boil *in vacuo*, with about 140° less of heat, than are required under a mean pressure of the atmosphere. (Black's Lectures, I. 151.) (N. 10.)

The influence of a diminished temperature in facilitating ebullition, may be inferred also from the following very simple experiment : Place, over a lamp, a Florence flask about three-fourths filled with water ; let it boil briskly, during a few minutes ; and, immediately on removing it from the lamp, cork it tightly up : The water will now cease to boil ; but, on cooling the upper part of the flask by a wet cloth, the boiling will be renewed. This renewal of the ebullition, by the application of cold, (an apparent paradox) is owing to the formation of an imperfect vacuum over the hot water, by the condensation of steam. (No. 11.)

From these facts, it may be inferred, that the particles of caloric are mutually repulsive, and that they communicate this repulsive tendency to other bodies in which caloric is contained. This repulsive power tends to change solids into fluids, and liquids into aeriform bodies, and is chiefly counteracted by the pressure of the atmosphere.

Were this counteracting cause removed, many bodies, which at present have a liquid form, would cease to be such, and would be changed into a gaseous state. Precisely the same effect, therefore, results from the prevalence of either of these forces. Add to certain liquids a quantity of caloric, in other words, place them in a high temperature, and they are immediately converted into gases : Or, their temperature remaining the same, diminish the weight of the atmosphere ; and the caloric, which they naturally contain, exerts its repulsive tendency with equal effect, and they are in like manner converted into gases. These facts are best shewn by the following experiments on ether :

1. Ether, at the temperature of 104° , exists in the state of a gas. This may be shewn by filling a jar with water of this temperature, and inverting it in a vessel of the same. Then introduce a little ether, by means of a small glass tube closed at one end. The ether will rise to the top of the jar, and, in its ascent, will be changed into gas. (N. 12.)

2. Ether is changed into gas by diminishing the weight of the atmosphere. Into a glass tube, about six inches long, and half an inch in diameter, put a tea-spoonful of ether, and fill up the tube with water ; then pressing the thumb on the open end of the tube, place it, inverted, in a jar of water. Let the whole be set under the receiver of an air-pump, and the air exhausted. The ether will be

changed into gas, which will expel the water entirely from the tube. On re-admitting the air into the receiver, the gas is again condensed into a liquid form.

IV. *(On the contrary, by considerably increasing the pressure, water may be heated to above 400° Fahrenheit, without being changed into vapour.)*

This experiment requires, for its performance, a strong iron vessel, called a Papin's digester, a plate of which may be seen in Gren's Chemistry. That the boiling point of water, and the temperature of steam, are raised by an increased atmospheric pressure, may be shown, however, by means of the small boiler represented plate v. fig. 46., and which will be found extremely useful in experiments on this subject. Its exact size, and directions for its construction, will be given in the appendix.

On the cock *c* may be screwed, occasionally, a valve, loaded in the proportion of fourteen pounds to the square inch. The boiler being rather more than half-filled with water, and the perforated cap *d* being screwed into its place, the ball of the thermometer will be an inch or more above the surface of the water, and will indicate its temperature, as well as that of the steam, both being in all cases precisely the same. Allowing the steam to escape through the cock *c*, before affixing the valve, the temperature of the steam, under a mean atmospheric pressure, will be 212°. When an additional atmosphere is added by the weighted valve, it will rise to above 240; by a valve twice as heavy as the first, or loaded in the proportion of twenty-eight pounds to the square inch, the temperature of the steam will be raised to nearly 270. This is as far as it is safe to carry the experiment; but by substituting a strong iron vessel, the numbers have been obtained, which will be found in the form of a Table, in the appendix.

V. *The absorption of caloric, during evaporation, shewn by experiment.*

Moisten a thermometer with alcohol, or with ether, and expose it to the air, repeating these operations alternately. The mercury of the thermometer will sink at each exposure, because the volatile liquor, during evaporation, robs it of its heat. In this way, (especially with the aid of an apparatus described by Mr. Cavallo, in the Philosophical Transactions 1781, p. 509.) water may be frozen in

a thin and small glass ball, by means of ether. The same effect may be obtained, also, by immersing a tube, containing water at the bottom, in a glass of ether, which is to be placed under the receiver of an air-pump : or the ether may be allowed to float on the surface of the water. During the exhaustion of the vessel, the ether will evaporate rapidly ; and, robbing the water of heat, will completely freeze it.

VI. *The fixation of caloric in water, by its conversion into steam, may be shewn by the following experiments :—*

1. Let a pound of water at 212° , and eight pounds of iron-filings at 300° , be suddenly mixed together. A large quantity of vapour will be instantly generated : and the temperature of the mixture will be only 212° : But that of the vapour produced, is also not more than 212° ; and the steam must therefore contain, in a latent or combined form, all the caloric which raised the temperature of eight pounds of iron-filings from 212° to 300° .

2. The quantity of caloric, which thus becomes latent during the formation of steam, may be approximated, by repeating the following experiment of Dr. Black : He placed two cylindrical flat-bottomed vessels of tin, five inches in diameter, and containing a small quantity of water at 50° , on a red-hot iron plate, of the kind used in kitchens. In four minutes the water began to boil, and in twenty minutes the whole was boiled away. In four minutes, therefore, the water received 162° of temperature, or $40\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ in each minute. If we suppose, therefore, that the heat continues to enter the water at the same rate, during the whole ebullition, we must conclude that $40\frac{1}{2}^{\circ} + 20^{\circ} = 810^{\circ}$ have entered the water, and are contained in the vapour.

VII. *On the contrary, vapours, during their conversion into a liquid form, evolve, or give out, much caloric.*—The heat given out, by the condensation of steam, is rendered apparent by the following experiment : Mix 100 gallons of water at 50° , with 1 gallon of water at 212° . The temperature of the water will be raised about $1\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. Condense, by a common still-tub, 1 gallon of water, from the state of steam, by 100 gallons of water, at the temperature of 50° . The water will be raised 11° . Hence, 8 pounds of water, condensed from steam, raise the temperature of 100 gallons of cold water $9\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ more than 8 pounds of boiling water ; and, by an easy calculation, it appears, that

the caloric imparted to the 100 gallons by the steam, if it could be condensed in 1 gallon of water, would raise it to 950° . A pound of water, therefore, in the state of steam, contains more caloric than a pound of boiling water, in the proportion of 950 to 212.

For exhibiting the same fact, by means of a small apparatus, which may be placed on a table, and with the assistance only of a lamp, the boiler already described (fig. 46.) will be found extremely well adapted. The right-angled pipe *e* must be screwed, however, into its place, and must be made to terminate at the bottom of a jar, containing a known quantity of water of a given temperature. The conducting-pipe and the jar should be wrapped round with a few folds of flannel. The apparatus being thus disposed, let the water in the boiler be heated by an Argand's lamp, with double concentric wicks, till steam issues in considerable quantity through the cock *c*, which is then to be closed. The steam will now pass through the right-angled pipe into the water contained in the jar, which will condense it, and will have its temperature very considerably raised. Ascertain the augmentation of temperature and weight; and the result will shew, how much a given weight of water has had its temperature raised by a certain weight of condensed steam. To another quantity of water, equal, in weight and temperature, to that contained in the jar at the outset of the experiment, add a quantity of water at 212° , equal in weight to the condensed steam; it will be found, on comparison of the two resulting temperatures, that a given weight of steam has produced, by its condensation, a much greater elevation of temperature, than the same quantity of boiling water. This will be better understood by the following example, taken from actual experiment:

Through eight ounces of water, at 51° Fahrenheit, contained in the glass jar, steam was passed from the boiler, till the temperature of the water in the jar rose to 177° . On weighing the water, it was found to have gained nine drachms; that is, precisely nine drachms of steam had been condensed, and had imparted its heat to the water. —To facilitate the explanation of this experiment, it is necessary to premise the following facts:

If to 10 ounces of water at 60°, we add an equal quantity of water at the same temperature, we shall have 20 ounces at 60°; that is, double the quantity of heat we had before the addition. Or, if to 10 ounces of water at 60°, we add 20 ounces of water at 60°, we shall have 30 ounces at 60°, or three times the quantity of heat we had before the addition. Again, if to 10 ounces of water at 60°, 10 ounces at 120° be added, we shall obtain 20 ounces of 90°, which is still three times the quantity of heat, existing in the first portion before the addition of the second. Hence, as was before stated, the temperature of the mixture of two equal quantities of water of different temperatures, will be the arithmetical mean of those temperatures; and hence, also, *the quantity of water, multiplied by the temperature, will always be a comparative measure of the quantity of heat.*

In the foregoing experiment, nine drachms of steam of 212°, added to 64 drachms of water of 51°, produced 73 drachms of water of 177°. Now,

$$73 + 177 = 12921 = \text{whole heat of the mixture.}$$

$$64 + 51 = 3264 = \begin{cases} \text{heat of 64 drachms, one of} \\ \text{the two component parts.} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{The difference, } 9657, = \begin{cases} \text{heat of 9 drachms, the other} \\ \text{component part.} \end{cases}$$

Therefore, 9657 divided by 9 = 1073°, should have been the temperature of the latter portion (*viz.* 9 drachms), had none of its heat been latent; and 1073—212 = 861°, gives the latent heat of the steam. This result does not differ more than might be expected, owing to the unavoidable inaccuracies of the experiment, from Mr. Watt's determination, which states the latent heat of steam at 950, or from that to 1000.

The large quantity of caloric, latent in steam, renders its application extremely useful for practical purposes. Thus, water may be heated, as in the foregoing experiment, at a considerable distance from the source of heat, by lengthening the conducting pipe *c*. This furnishes us with a commodious method of warming the water of baths, which, in certain cases of disease, it is of importance to have near the patient's bed-room. Steam may also be applied to the purpose of heating or evaporating water,

by a modification of the apparatus. Fig. 46. g. represents the apparatus for boiling water by the condensation of steam, without adding to its quantity; a circumstance occasionally of considerable importance. The steam is received between the vessel, which contains the water to be heated, and an exterior case; it imparts its caloric to the water, through the substance of the vessel; is thus condensed, and returns to the boiler by the perpendicular pipe. An alteration of the form of the vessel adapts it to evaporation (fig. 46. h.). This method of evaporation is admirably suited to the concentration of liquids, that are decomposed, or injured, by a higher temperature than that of boiling water, such as medicinal extracts, &c. In the employment of either of these vessels, it is expedient to surround it with some slow conductor of heat. On a small scale, a few folds of woollen cloth are sufficient; and, when the vessel is constructed of a large size for practical use, this purpose is served by the brick-work in which it is placed.

SECT. IV.

Specific Caloric.

Equal weights of the *same* body, at the same temperature, contain similar quantities of caloric. But equal weights of *different* bodies, at the same temperature, contain unequal quantities of caloric. The quantity of caloric, which one body contains, compared with that contained in another, is called its *specific caloric*; and the power or property, which enables bodies to retain different quantities of caloric, has been called *capacity for caloric*. The method for determining the specific caloric, or comparative quantities of caloric in different bodies, is as follows:

It has already been observed, that equal weights of the *same* body, at different temperatures, give, on admixture, the arithmetical mean. Thus, the temperature of a pint of hot water, and a pint of cold, is, after mixture, exactly half way between that of the two extremes. But this is not the case, when equal quantities of *different* bodies, at different temperatures, are employed.

(a) If a pint of quicksilver at 150° Fahrenheit, be mixed with a pint of water at 100° , the resulting temperature will not be 125° , (the arithmetical mean) but only 120° . Hence the quicksilver loses 30° of heat, which nevertheless raise the temperature of the water only 20° ; in other words, a larger quantity of caloric is required to raise the temperature of a pint of water, than that of a pint of mercury, through the same number of degrees. Hence it is inferred, that water has a greater capacity for caloric than is inherent in quicksilver.

(b) The experiment may be reversed, by heating the water to a greater degree than the quicksilver. If the water be at 150° , and the mercury at 100° , the resulting temperature will be 130° ; because the pint of hot water contains more caloric, than is necessary to raise the quicksilver to the arithmetical mean.

(c) Lastly, if we take 3 measures of quicksilver to 2 of water, it is of no consequence which is the hotter; for the resulting temperature is always the mean between the two extremes; for example 125, if the extremes be 150 and 100. Here, it is manifest, that the same quantity of caloric, which makes two measures of water warmer by 25° , is sufficient for making three measures of quicksilver warmer by the same number. Quicksilver has, therefore, a less capacity than water for caloric, in the proportion, when equal measures are taken, of two to three.

When this comparison is extended to a great variety of bodies, they will be found to differ very considerably in their capacities for caloric. The results of numerous experiments of this kind are comprised in a Table of specific caloric (see the Appendix.)

The capacities of bodies for caloric, influence, considerably, the rate at which they are heated and cooled. In general, those bodies are most slowly heated, and cool most slowly, in a given temperature, which have the greatest capacities for heat. Thus, if water and quicksilver be set, in similar quantities, and at equal distances, before the fire, the quicksilver will be much more rapidly heated than the water. By ascertaining the comparative rates of cooling, we may even determine, with tolerable exactness, the specific caloric of bodies; and particularly of one class (the gases,) which are not easily compared in any other way. (See Leslie on Heat, Chap. XXI.)

CHAP. IV.

OF LIGHT.

THE laws of light, so far as they relate to the phenomena of its movement, and to the sense of vision, constitute the science of OPTICS ; and are the objects, therefore, not of Chemistry, but of Natural Philosophy. Light, however, is capable of producing important chemical effects, and of entering into various chemical combinations. Its action is, for the most part, exerted in de-oxidizing bodies ; and facts of this kind cannot be perfectly understood, till two important classes of bodies have been described, viz. those of oxides and of acids. In this place, therefore, I shall state only a few of its least complicated effects ; and shall trace its agency on different bodies, as they become the objects of experiment in the sequel.

I. Light, in the state in which it reaches the organ of vision, it is well known, is not a simple body, but is capable of being divided, by the prism, into seven primary rays or colours, viz. red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet. These are refrangible in the above order, the red being least refrangible, and the violet most so. The image formed by the different rays, thus separated, constitutes the SOLAR SPECTRUM.

II. Heat and light are not present, in corresponding degrees, in different parts of the solar spectrum ; for, generally speaking, those rays illuminate most, that have the least heating power. The rays in the centre of the spectrum have the greatest illuminating power, as may be ascertained by viewing, successively in each, a small body, such as the head of a common nail. It will be seen most distinctly in the light green or deep yellow rays, and less plainly towards either extremity of the spectrum.

III. The heating power of the rays follows a different order.—If the bulb of a very sensible thermometer be moved, in succession, through the differently coloured

rays, it will be found to indicate the greatest heat in the red rays ; next in the green ; and so on, in a diminishing progression, to the violet.

IV. When the thermometer, is removed entirely out of the confines of the red rays, but with its ball still in the line of the spectrum, it rises even higher than in the red rays ; and continues to rise, till removed half an inch beyond the extremity of the red ray. The ball of the thermometer, employed for this purpose, should be extremely small,* and should be blackened with Indian ink. An air thermometer is better adapted than a mercurial one, to exhibit the minute change of temperature that ensues. These invisible heat-making rays may be reflected by the mirror, and refracted by the lens, exactly in the same manner as the rays of light.

V. Beyond the confines of the spectrum on the other side, viz. a little beyond the violet ray, the thermometer is not affected ; but in this place it is remarkable, that there are also invisible rays of a different kind, which exert all the chemical effects of the rays of light, and with even greater energy. One of the chemical properties of light, it will hereafter be stated, is, that it speedily changes, from white to black, the fresh-precipitated muriate of silver: (See chap. xviii. sect. 4.) This effect is produced most rapidly by the direct light of the sun ; and the rays, as separated by the prism, have this property in various degrees. The blue rays, for example, effect a change of the muriate of silver in fifteen seconds, which the red require twenty minutes to accomplish ; and, generally speaking, the power diminishes as we recede from the violet extremity. But entirely out of the spectrum, and beyond the violet rays, the effect is still produced. Hence it appears, that the solar beams consist of three distinct kinds of rays ; of those that excite heat, and promote oxidation ; of illuminating rays ; and of de-oxidizing rays. A striking illustration of the different power of these various rays is furnished, by their effect on phosphorus. In the rays beyond the red extremity, phosphorus is heated, smokes, and emits white fumes ; but these are presently suppressed, on exposing it

* Excellent thermometers for this purpose are made by Mr. Crichton of Glasgow, and Mr. Cary of London.

to the de-oxidizing rays, which lie beyond the violet extremity.

VI. There is an exception, however, as stated by Dr. Wollaston, to the de-oxidizing power of the rays above-mentioned. The substance, termed gum-guaiacum, has the property, when exposed to the light, of changing from a yellowish colour to green; and this effect he has ascertained to be connected with the absorption of oxygen. Now in the most refrangible rays, which would fall beyond the violet extremity, he found that this substance became green, and was again changed to yellow by the least refrangible. This is precisely the reverse of what happens to muriate of silver, which is blackened, or de-oxidized, by the most refrangible; and has its colour restored, or is again oxygenized, in the least refrangible rays.

VII. Certain bodies have the property of absorbing the rays of light in their totality; of retaining them for some time; and of again evolving them unchanged, and unaccompanied by sensible heat. Thus, in an experiment of Du Fay, a diamond exposed to the sun, and immediately covered with black wax, shone in the dark, on removing the wax, at the expiration of several months. Bodies, gifted with this property, are called SOLAR PHOSPHORI. Such are Canton's, Baldwin's, Homberg's and the Bolognian phosphori, which will be described hereafter. To the same class belong several natural bodies, which retain light, and give it out unchanged. Thus snow is a natural solar phosphorus. So also is, occasionally, the sea when agitated; putrid fish have a similar property; and the glow-worm belongs to the same class. These phenomena are independent of every thing like combustion; for artificial phosphori, after exposure to the sun's rays, shine in the dark, when placed in the vacuum of an air-pump, or under water, &c. where no air is present to effect combustion.

VIII. From solar phosphori, the extrication of light is facilitated by the application of an elevated temperature; and, after having ceased to shine at the ordinary temperature, they again emit light when exposed to an increase of heat. Several bodies, which do not otherwise give out light, evolve it, or become phosphorescent, when heated. Thus, powdered fluete of lime becomes luminous, when thrown on an iron plate raised to a temperature rather above that of boiling water. The yolk of an egg, when

The apparatus, required for experiments on gases, consists partly of vessels fitted for containing the materials that afford them, and partly of vessels adapted for the reception of gases, and for submitting them to experiment.

1. For procuring such gases as are producible without a very strong heat, glass bottles, furnished with ground stoppers and bent tubes, are sufficient, plate II. fig. 18. Of these several will be required, of different sizes and shapes, adapted to different purposes. If these cannot be procured, a Florence flask, with a cork perforated by a bent glass tube, or even by a tin pipe, will serve for obtaining some of the gases.

Those gases that require, for their liberation, a red heat, may be procured, by exposing to heat the substance capable of affording them, in earthen retorts or tubes; or in a gun-barrel, the touch-hole of which has been accurately closed by an iron pin. To the mouth of the barrel must be affixed a glass tube, bent so as to convey the gases where it may be requisite.

A very convenient apparatus, for obtaining such gases as cannot be disengaged without a red heat, is sold at the shops for philosophical apparatus in London. It consists of a cast iron retort, to which a jointed metallic conducting tube is fitted by grinding, and by means of which the gas may be conveyed in any direction, and to any moderate distance. (N. 13.)

2. For receiving the gases, glass jars, of various sizes, (figs. 21, 22, 23.) are required, some of which should be furnished with necks at the top, fitted with ground stoppers. Others should be provided with brass caps, and screws, for the reception of air-cocks. (fig. 22.) Of these last, (the air-cocks,) several will be found necessary, and, to some of them, bladders, or elastic bottles, should be firmly tied, for the purpose of transferring gases. These jars will also be found extremely useful in experiments on the properties and effects of the gases. Some of them should be graduated into cubical inches.

To contain these jars, when in use, a vessel will be necessary, capable of holding a few gallons of water. This may either be of wood, if of considerable size; or, if small, of tin, japanned or painted. Plate IV. fig. 41. *ff.* exhibits a section of this apparatus, which has been termed the pneumato-chemical trough, or pneumatic cistern. Its size

may vary with that of the jars employed ; and, about two or three inches from the top, it should have a shelf, on which the jars may be placed, when filled with air, without the risk of being upset. In this shelf should be a few small holes, to which inverted funnels may be soldered.

A glass tube, about eighteen inches long, and three quarters of an inch diameter, (fig. 24.) closed at one end, and divided into cubic inches, and tenths of inches, will be required for ascertaining the purity of air by nitrous gas. It should be accompanied also with a small measure, containing about two cubic inches, and similarly graduated. For employing the solution of nitrous gas in liquid sulphate of iron, (a happy invention of Mr. Davy, which leaves nothing to be desired in eudiometry,) glass tubes, about five inches long, and half an inch wide, divided decimally, are also necessary. Besides these, the experimentalist should be furnished with air funnels, (fig. 19.) for transferring gases from wide to narrow vessels.

An apparatus, almost indispensable in experiments on this class of bodies, is a GAZOMETER, which enables us to receive, and to preserve, large quantities of gas, with the aid of only a few pounds of water. In the form of this apparatus there is considerable variety ; but I have no other view than of explaining its general construction and use. It consists of an outer fixed vessel *d.*, (plate IV. fig. 35.) and an inner moveable one *c.*, both of japanned iron. The latter slides easily up and down within the other, and is suspended by cords passing over pulleys, to which are attached the counterpoises, *cc.* To avoid the incumbrance of a great weight of water, the outer vessel, *d.*, is made double, or is composed of two cylinders, the inner one of which is closed at the top and at the bottom. The space only of about half-an-inch is left between the two cylinders, as shewn by the dotted lines. In this space the vessel *c.* may move freely up and down. The interval is filled with water as high as the top of the inner cylinder. The cup, or rim, at the top of the outer vessel, is to prevent the water from overflowing, when the vessel *c.* is forcibly pressed down, in which situation it is placed whenever gas is about to be collected. The gas enters from the vessel in which it is produced, by the communicating pipe *b.*, and passes along the perpendicular pipe marked

by dotted lines in the centre, into the cavity of the vessel *c*, which continues rising till it is full.

To transfer the gas, or to apply it to any purpose, the cock *b*. is to be shut, and an empty bladder, or bottle of elastic gum, furnished with a stop-cock, to be screwed on *a*. When the vessel *c*. is pressed down with the hand, the gas passes down the central pipe, which it had before ascended, and its escape at *b*. being prevented, it finds its way up a pipe which is fixed to the outer surface of the vessel, and which is terminated by the cock *a*. By means of an ivory mouth-piece screwed upon this cock, the gas, included in the instrument, may be respired; the nostrils being closed by the fingers. When it is required to transfer the gas, into glass jars standing inverted in water, a crooked tube may be employed, one end of which is screwed upon the cock *b*.; while the other aperture is brought under the inverted funnel, fixed into the shelf of the pneumatic trough.—See fig. 41. *c*.

Several alterations have been made in the form of this apparatus; but they are principally such as add merely to its neatness and beauty, and not to its utility; and they render it less easy of explanation. The counterpoises *cc*. are now, generally, concealed in the framing, and the vessel *c*. is frequently made of glass.

When large quantities of gas are required, (as at a public lecture,) the gas-holder, plate IV. fig. 36. will be found extremely useful. It is made of tinned iron plate, japanned both within and without. Two short pipes, *a*. and *c*., terminated by cocks, proceed from its sides, and another, *b*., passes through the middle of the top, or cover, to which it is soldered, and reaches within half-an-inch of the bottom. It will be found convenient also to have an air-cock, with a very wide bore, fixed to the funnel at *b*. When gas is to be transferred into this vessel from the gazometer, the vessel is first completely filled with water through the funnel, the cock *a*. being left open, and *c*. shut. By means of a horizontal pipe, the aperture *a*. is connected with *a*. of the gazometer. The cock *b*. being shut, *a*. and *c*. are opened, and the vessel *c*. of the gazometer, fig. 35. gently pressed downwards with the hand. The gas then descends from the gazometer till the air-holder is full, which may be known by the water ceasing to escape through the cock *c*. All the cocks are then to be shut,

and the vessels disunited. To apply this gas to any purpose, an empty bladder may be screwed on *a.* ; and water being poured through the funnel *b.*, a corresponding quantity of gas is forced into the bladder. By lengthening the pipe *b.* the pressure of a column of water may be added ; and the gas being forced through *a.* with considerable velocity, may be applied to the purpose of a blow-pipe, &c. &c.*

The gazometer, (N. 14.) already described, is fitted only for the reception of gases that are confinable by water ; because quicksilver would act on the tinning and solder of the vessel, and would not only be spoiled itself, but would destroy the apparatus. Yet an instrument of this kind, in which mercury can be employed, is peculiarly desirable, on account of the great weight of that fluid ; and two varieties of the mercurial gazometer have therefore been invented. The one, of glass, is the contrivance of Mr. Clayfield, and may be seen represented in the plate prefixed to Mr. Davy's Researches. In the other, invented by Mr. Pepys, the cistern for the mercury is of cast iron. A drawing and representation of it may be found in the 5th Vol. of the Philosophical Magazine ; but as neither of these instruments are essential to the chemical student, and as they are required only in experiments of research, I deem it sufficient to refer to the minute descriptions of their respective inventors.

For those gases that are absorbed by water, a mercurial trough is necessary. For the mere exhibition of a few experiments on these condensible gases, a small wooden trough, 11 inches long, 2 wide, and 2 deep, cut out of a solid block of mahogany, is sufficient ; but for experiments of research, one of considerable size is required. See Plate III. fig. 31. *ff.*

Previously to undertaking experiments on other gases, it may be well for an unpractised experimentalist to accustom himself to the dexterous management of gases, by transferring common air from one vessel to another of different sizes.

1. When a glass jar, closed at one end, is filled with water, and held, with its mouth downwards, in however

* Descriptions and figures of improved gas-holders may be seen in the 13th Vol. of the Philosophical Magazine.

small a quantity of water, the fluid is retained in its place by the pressure of the atmosphere on the surface of the exterior water. Fill in this manner, and invert, on the shelf of the pneumatic trough, one of the jars, which is furnished with a stopper (fig. 23.) The water will remain in the jar so long as the stopper is closed; but immediately on removing it, the water will descend to the same level within as without; for it is now pressed equally, upwards and downwards, by the atmosphere, and falls therefore in consequence of its own gravity.

2. Place the jar, filled with water and inverted, over one of the funnels of the shelf of the pneumatic trough. Then take another jar, filled (as it will be of course) with atmospherical air. Place the latter with its mouth on the surface of the water; and on pressing it in the same position below the surface, the included air will remain in its situation. Bring the mouth of the jar beneath the funnel in the shelf, and incline it gradually. The air will now rise in bubbles, through the funnel, into the upper jar, and will expel the water from it into the trough.

3. Let one of the jars, provided with a stop-cock at the top, be placed full of air on the shelf of the trough. Screw upon it an empty bladder; open the communication between the jar and the bladder, and press the former into the water. The air will then pass into the bladder, till it is filled; and when the bladder is removed from the jar, and a pipe screwed upon it, the air may be again transferred into a jar inverted in water.

4. For the purpose of transferring gases from a wide vessel standing over water, into a small tube filled with and inverted in mercury, I have long used the following contrivance of Mr. Cavendish. A tube, eight or ten inches long, and of very small diameter, is drawn out to a fine bore, and bent at one end, so as to resemble the italic letter *l*. The point is then immersed in quicksilver, which is drawn into the tube till it is filled, by the action of the mouth. Placing the finger over the aperture at the straight end, the tube is next conveyed through the water, with the bent end uppermost, into an inverted jar of gas. When the finger is removed, the quicksilver falls from the tube into the trough, or into a cup placed to receive it, and the tube is filled with the gas. The whole of the quicksilver, however, must not be allowed to escape; but a column

must be left three or four inches long, and must be kept in its place by the finger. Remove the tube from the water; let an assistant dry it with blotting paper; and introduce the point of the bent end into the aperture of the tube standing over quicksilver. On withdrawing the finger from that aperture which is now uppermost, the pressure of the column of quicksilver, added to the weight of the atmosphere, will force the gas from the bent tube into the one standing in the mercurial trough.

On every occasion, when it is necessary to observe the precise quantity of gas, at the commencement and close of an experiment, it is essential, that the barometer and thermometer should exactly correspond at both periods. An increased temperature, or a fall of the barometer, augments the apparent quantity of gas; and a reduced temperature, or a higher barometer, diminishes its bulk. Another circumstance, an attention to which is indispensable in all accurate experiments, is that the surface of the fluid, by which the gas is confined, should be precisely at the same level within and without the jar. If the fluid be higher within the jar, the contained gas will be under a less pressure than that of the atmosphere, the weight of which is counterpoised by that of the column of fluid within. In mercury, this source of error is of very considerable amount; as any person may be satisfied by pressing down, into quicksilver, a tube partly filled with that fluid, and partly with air, for the volume of the air will gradually decrease, the deeper the tube is immersed. As it is not always possible, when a tube is of considerable length, to depress it so far into quicksilver, as to equalize the two levels, the following rule will be found useful for estimating the real from the apparent quantity.

Suppose a glass tube *a. c.* (plate II. fig. 27.) closed at one end, and inverted in quicksilver, to be filled with that fluid to *b.*, and above *b.*, with any gas. Let the length of the column of air *a. b.* be eight inches, and that of quicksilver *b. c.* seven inches. To ascertain what space the column of gas would occupy if *b.* were level with the surface of the quicksilver in the basin at *c.*, subtract the height *b. c.* (8.) from the height of the barometer at the time of the experiment (say 28.); multiply the remainder (20.) by *a. b.* (7.); divide the product (140.) by the actual barometrical height (28.), and the quotient (5.) is the answer. If

the tube be standing in water, the computation is the same excepting only, that instead of twenty-eight inches, the height of a mercurial barometer, we must take fourteen times twenty-eight, or fourteen times the barometrical height at the time, which will give the height of a water-barometer.

The reader may consult a paper by Mr. Davy on this subject, in Nicholson's 8vo. Journal, Vol. IV. p. 32.; and, in the Appendix to Mr. Kirwan's work on Mineral Waters, copious tables are given, to save the trouble of calculation, in which the apparent is reduced to the actual bulk, in a great variety of examples.

Of experiments illustrative of the nature of gases in general, it may be proper to mention one or two, that show the mode in which caloric exists in this class of bodies. In vapours, strictly so called, as the steam of water, caloric seems to be retained with but little force; for it quits the water when the vapour is merely exposed to a lower temperature. But, in gases, caloric is united by very forcible affinity, and no diminution of temperature, that has ever yet been effected, can separate it from some of them. Thus the air of our atmosphere, in the most intense artificial or natural cold, still remains in the aëriform state. Hence is derived one character of gases, viz. that they remain aëriform under almost all variations of pressure and temperature; and in this class are also included those aerial bodies, which, being condensed by water, require confinement over mercury. The following experiment will show, that the caloric, contained in gases, is chemically combined.

Into a small retort, (plate II. fig. 26. *b.*) put an ounce or two of wet-laid common salt, and about half its weight of sulphuric acid. By this process, a great quantity of gas is produced, which might be received and collected over mercury. But, to serve the purpose of this experiment, let it pass through a glass balloon, *c.*, having three openings, into one of which the neck of the retort passes, while, from the other, a tube *e.* proceeds, which ends in a vessel of water, *f.* Before closing the apparatus, let a thermometer *d.* be included in the balloon, to show the temperature of the gas. It will be found, that the mercury, in this thermometer, will rise only a few degrees, whereas the water, in

the vessel which receives the bent tube, will soon become boiling hot. In this instance, caloric flows from the lamp to the muriatic acid, and converts it into gas; but the heat, thus expended, is not appreciable by the thermometer, and must, therefore, be chemically combined. The caloric, however, is again evolved, when the gas is condensed by water; and, in this experiment, we trace it into combination, and again into the state of uncombined caloric.

For demonstrating the influence of variations of atmospheric pressure on the formation of gases, better experiments cannot be devised than those of Lavoisier.—See his *Elements*, chap. 1. But as some students, who have the use of an air-pump, may not possess the apparatus described by Lavoisier, (the glass-bell and sliding-wire) it may be proper to point out an easier mode of showing the same fact. This proof is furnished by the experiment described page 40., in which ether is made to assume alternately an aëriform and liquid state, by removing and restoring the pressure of the atmosphere.

SECT. II.

Oxygen Gas.

I. Oxygen gas may be procured from various substances.

1. From the black oxide of manganese, heated to redness in a gun-barrel, or in an iron or earthen retort; or, from the same oxide, heated by a lamp in a retort or gas bottle, with half its weight of strong sulphuric acid.

2. From the red oxide of lead, (the common red-lead used by painters,) heated either with or without sulphuric acid.

3. From various other oxides, as will be hereafter mentioned.

4. From nitrate of potash (common saltpetre) made red-hot in a gun barrel, or in an earthen retort.

5. From oxygenized muriate of potash, heated in a small glass retort, over an Argand's lamp. The oxygen gas thus produced, is much purer than that obtained in any other mode, especially the last portions, which should be kept separate.

II. This gas has the following properties :

1. *It is not absorbed by water; or, at least, is so sparingly absorbed, that, when agitated in contact with water, no perceptible diminution takes place.*

2. *All combustible bodies burn in oxygen gas with greatly increased splendour.*

(1.) A lighted wax-taper, fixed to an iron wire, and let down into a vessel of this gas, burns with great brilliancy, plate IV. fig. 38. If the taper be blown out, and let down into a vessel of the gas while the snuff remains red-hot, it instantly rekindles, with a slight explosion.

(b.) A red-hot bit of charcoal, fastened to a copper wire, and immersed in the gas, throws out beautiful sparks.

(c.) The light of phosphorus, burnt in this gas, is the brightest that can be in any mode produced. Let the phosphorus be placed in a small hemispherical tin cup, which may be raised by means of the wire-stand, plate II. fig. 25., two or three inches above the surface of water contained in a broad shallow dish. Fill a bell-shaped receiver, having an open neck at the top, to which a compressed bladder is firmly tied, with oxygen gas; and, as it stands inverted in water, press a circular piece of pasteboard, rather exceeding the jar in diameter, over its mouth. When an assistant has set fire to the phosphorus, cover it instantly with the jar of oxygen gas, retaining the pasteboard in its place, till the jar is immediately over the cup. When this has been skilfully managed, a very small portion only of the gas will escape; and the inflammation of the phosphorus will be extremely brilliant. The expanded gas rises into the flaccid bladder, and is thus prevented from escaping into the room, and proving disagreeable by its suffocating smell.

(d) Substitute, for the phosphorus in Experiment c. a small ball formed of turnings of zinc, and in which about a grain of phosphorus is inclosed. Set fire to the phosphorus, and cover it expeditiously with the jar of oxygen. The zinc will be inflamed, and will burn with a beautiful white light. A similar experiment may be made with metallic arsenic, which may be moistened with spirit of turpentine. The filings of various metals may also be inflamed, by placing them in a small cavity, formed in a piece of charcoal, igniting the charcoal, and blowing on the part containing the metal a stream of oxygen gas.

(e) Procure some thin harpsichord wire, and twist it round a slender rod of iron or glass, so as to coil it up in a spiral form. Then withdraw the rod, and tie a little thread or flax round one end of the wire, for about one-twentieth of an inch; which end is to be dipped into melted sulphur. The other end of the wire is to be fixed into a cork; so that the spiral may hang vertically. Fill, also, with oxygen gas, a bottle capable of holding about a quart, and set it with its mouth upwards. Then light the sulphur, and introduce the wire into the bottle of gas, suspending it by the cork. The iron will burn with a most brilliant light, throwing out a number of sparks, which fall to the bottom of the bottle, and generally break it. This accident, however, may frequently be prevented by pouring sand into the bottle, so as to lie about half an inch deep on the bottom (see plate iv. fig. 39.). According to Mr. Accum, (Nicholson's Journal, 8vo. i. 320.) a thick piece of iron or steel, such as a file, if made sharp pointed, may be burnt in oxygen gas. A small bit of wood is to be stuck upon its extremity, and set on fire, previously to immersion in the gas.

(f) A little of Homberg's pyrophorus, a substance to be hereafter described, when poured into this gas, immediately flashes like inflamed gun-powder.

III. *During every combustion in oxygen gas, the gas suffers a material diminution.*—To exhibit this, experimentally, in a manner perfectly free from all sources of error, would require such an apparatus as few persons are likely to possess. The apparatus required may be seen described in the 6th chapter of Lavoisier's Elements. The fact may, however, be shewn, less accurately, in the following manner: Fill, with oxygen gas, a jar, of moderate size, which has a neck and ground-glass stopper at the top. Then, with the assistance of a stand, formed of bent iron-wire, (plate ii. fig. 25.) place a shallow tin vessel, containing a bit of phosphorus or sulphur, three or four inches above the level of the water of a pneumatic trough. Invert the jar of oxygen gas, cautiously and expeditiously, over this cup, so as to confine it, with its contents, in the gas, and, pressing down the jar to the bottom of the trough, open the stopper. A quantity of gas will immediately rush out, and the water will rise to the same level within the jar as without. When this has taken place, set fire to the sul-

phur or phosphorus by an iron wire, and instantly put in the stopper. The first effect of the combustion will be a depression of the water within the jar; but when the combustion has closed, and the vessel has cooled, a considerable absorption will be found to have ensued.

Those persons who are possessed of a mercurial apparatus may repeat this experiment in a less exceptionable manner. On the surface of the quicksilver let a small hemispherical cup float, made of untinned sheet-iron; and, in order to keep it from the sides of the jar, it may rest on a wire-stand, shaped like the figure 43. plate iv. Let a jar, the height and diameter of which must be regulated by the size of the mercurial trough, be filled with oxygen gas over water, and be removed, by means of a piece of pasteboard, as before described, to the mercurial bath, inverting it dexterously over the tin cup. If the phosphorus had been previously set on fire, a large quantity of the gas, expanded by the heat, would have escaped, and would have prevented the accurate measurement of the absorption. After drying the surface of the mercury within the jar by blotting paper, a portion of the included gas must, therefore, be removed. This is done by an inverted syphon, one leg of which is to be introduced within the jar; and the gas will be forced through the open extremity of the other, when the jar is pressed down into the quicksilver. When the proper quantity has been expelled, remove the syphon. The cup, containing the phosphorus, will thus be placed on the surface of the quicksilver within the jar, and above the level of the mercury without. The phosphorus is to be inflamed by passing a crooked iron wire through the quicksilver. On the first impression of the heat arising from its combustion, the included gas will be considerably expanded; but when the phosphorus has ceased to burn, a considerable absorption will be found to have taken place, the amount of which may be measured by ascertaining the height of the quicksilver within the jar, before and after the experiment. The quantity of phosphorus employed should be very small, and should not bear a greater proportion than that of ten grains to each pint of gas; otherwise the combustion will go on so far as to endanger the breaking of the jar, by the approach of the inflamed phosphorus.

In this process, a white dense vapour is produced, which concretes on the inner surface of the jar in flakes. This substance has strongly acid properties; and, being formed by the union of oxygen with phosphorus, is termed the phosphoric acid.

The diminution of the volume of oxygen gas, by the combustion of other bodies, may be ascertained in a similar manner. When the substance employed is not easily set on fire, it is proper to enclose, along, and in contact with it, a small bit of phosphorus, the combustion of which excites sufficient heat to inflame iron-turnings, charcoal, &c. In the instance of charcoal, however, though that substance undergoes combustion, no absorption ensues; because, as will appear in the sequel, the product is a gas, occupying very nearly the same bulk as the oxygen gas submitted to experiment.

IV. *All bodies, by combustion in oxygen gas, acquire an addition to their weight; and the increase is in proportion to the quantity of gas absorbed.*—To prove this by experiment, requires also a complicated apparatus.

But sufficient evidence of this fact may be obtained by the following very simple experiment. Fill the bowl of a tobacco pipe with iron wire coiled spirally, and of known weight: Let the end of the pipe be slipped into a brass tube, which is screwed to a bladder filled with oxygen gas: Heat the bowl of the pipe, and its contents, to redness in the fire, and then force through it a stream of oxygen gas from the bladder. The iron wire will burn; will be rapidly oxydized; and will be found, when weighed, to be considerably heavier than before. When completely oxydized in this mode, 100 parts of iron-wire gain an addition of about 30. The qualities of the iron, also, are entirely changed; and it is converted from a tough metal, into a brittle substance, which may be reduced to powder, is destitute of acid properties, and which is termed an OXIDE.

V. Every substance, capable of union with oxygen, affords, by combustion, either an oxide or an acid; and this difference of the product is the foundation of an arrangement of combustible bodies into the two comprehensive orders of oxydizable and acidifiable bases. Several bodies, however, are susceptible of both these changes; and yield, by combustion, compounds possessing the properties of oxides or of acids, according to the quantity of oxygen

combined with them ; the highest state of oxygenation imparting the characters of an acid, and an inferior degree converting them into oxides.

VI. *Oxygen gas supports, eminently, animal life.*—It will be found that a mouse, bird, or other small animal, will live six times longer in a vessel of oxygen gas, than in one of atmospherical air of the same dimensions.

VII. *This effect seems connected with the absorption of oxygen by the blood.*—Pass up a little dark-coloured blood into a jar partly filled with oxygen gas, and standing over mercury. The gas will be in part absorbed, and the colour of the blood will be changed to a bright and florid red. This change to red may be shewn, by putting a little blood into a common vial filled with oxygen gas, and shaking it up.

SECT. III.

Azotic or Nitrogen Gas.

1. Azotic gas may be procured, though not absolutely pure, yet sufficiently so for the purpose of exhibiting its general properties, in any of the following manners : 1. Mix equal weights of iron filings and sulphur into a paste with water, and place the mixture, in a proper vessel, over water, supported on a stand : Then invert over it a jar, full of common air, and allow this to stand exposed to the mixture for a day or two. The air contained in the jar will gradually diminish, as will appear from the ascent of the water within the jar, till at last only about 3-4ths of its original bulk will remain. The vessel containing the iron and sulphur must next be removed, by withdrawing it through the water ; and the remaining air may be made the subject of experiment.

2. A quicker process, for procuring azotic gas, consists in filling a bottle, about one-fourth, with the solution of nitrous gas, in liquid sulphate of iron, and agitating it with the air which fills the rest of the bottle. During the agitation, the thumb must be firmly placed over the mouth of the bottle ; and, when removed, the mouth of the bottle must be immersed in a cup full of the same solution, which will supply the place of the absorbed air.

3. Atmospheric air, also, in which phosphorus has burned out, affords, when time has been allowed for the condensation of the phosphoric acid, tolerably pure azotic gas.

This gas has the following properties :

1. It is not absorbed by water.
2. It immediately extinguishes a lighted candle, and all other burning substances.

Even phosphorus, in a state of active inflammation, is immediately extinguished when immersed in azotic gas. This is best shewn by placing the burning phosphorus in a tin cup; raised by a stand above the surface of the water, and quickly inverting over it a jar filled with azotic gas.

3. It is fatal to animals that are confined in it.
4. When mixed with pure oxygen gas, in the proportion of four parts to one of the latter, it composes a mixture resembling atmospheric air in all its properties. Of this any one may be satisfied, by mixing four parts of azotic gas with one of oxygen gas, and immersing, in the mixture, a lighted taper. The taper will burn as in atmospherical air.

SECT. IV.

Atmospheric Air.

The air of our atmosphere, it appears, therefore, from the foregoing facts, is a mixture, or probably a combination of two different gases, viz. oxygen gas and azotic gas. The former of these two seems to be the only ingredient on which the effects of the air, as a chemical agent, depend. Hence combustible bodies burn in atmospheric air, only in consequence of the oxygen gas which it contains; and when this is exhausted, air is no longer capable of supporting combustion.* The abstraction of its oxygen gas from the air will be rendered apparent by the following experiments :

* Certain combustible bodies even cease to burn in atmospheric air, long before its oxygenous portion is consumed, for reasons that will hereafter be given.

I. Burn a little sulphur or phosphorus, in the manner described, Sect. II., substituting for oxygen gas common atmospherical air. The combustion will, in this instance, be less vivid; will cease sooner; and the absorption, when the vessels have cooled, will be much less considerable than in the former case.

The phosphorus, however, will have absorbed the whole of the oxygen gas contained in the air submitted to experiment; and hence it may be employed for measuring the quantity of oxygen gas in a given bulk of atmospherical air. This may be accomplished, either by its slow or rapid combustion. Berthollet proposes (34. An. Ch. 78.) to expose a cylinder of phosphorus, fastened to a glass rod, in a narrow glass vessel, graduated into equal parts, and standing full of air over water. The phosphorus immediately begins to act on the included air; and in six or eight hours its effect is completed. The residuary azotic gas has its bulk enlarged about one-fortieth, by absorbing a little phosphorus; and, for this, allowance must be made in measuring the diminution. In the eudiometer of Seguin, the rapid combustion of phosphorus is employed with the same view. A glass-tube, open at one end only, about an inch in diameter, and eight or ten high, is filled with, and inverted in, mercury. A small bit of phosphorus, dried with blotting paper, is then introduced, and by its inferior specific gravity rises to the top of the tube, where it is melted, by bringing a red-hot poker near to the outer surface of the glass. When the phosphorus is liquefied, a measured portion of the air to be examined is admitted, by a little at once, into the tube. The phosphorus inflames at each addition, and the mercury rises. When all the air under examination has been added, the red-hot poker is again applied to ensure the completion of the process, and the residuary gas is transferred into a graduated measure, where its bulk is carefully ascertained. In this instance, about one-fortieth the volume of the residuary gas is to be deducted from the apparent quantity of azotic gas, because, in this case also, a small portion of phosphorus is dissolved by the latter, and occasions a trifling expansion. With this deduction, atmospheric air holds pretty accurately 21 parts out of each 100; and contains, therefore, 21 *per cent.* of oxygen, and 79 of azote by measure.

II. The inferior fitness of atmospherical air, to that of oxygen gas, for supporting combustion, may be shewn, also, by a comparative experiment with two candles. Provide two circular pieces of lead, three inches diameter, and half-an-inch thick, from the centre of each of which proceeds a perpendicular iron wire, six or eight inches high ; to the end of both wires fasten a piece of wax taper. Provide also two jars, each two inches diameter, and twelve long, and having a neck at the top, with a compressed bladder tied upon it. Fill one of the jars, leaving the bladder empty, with oxygen gas ; and, at the same instant, with the aid of an assistant, invert both jars over the burning candles, keeping the oxygen gas in its place till the jar is inverted, by a piece of pasteboard. In the common air, the candle will soon be extinguished ; but that confined in oxygen gas will burn with much greater splendour, and will continue burning long after the other is extinguished. On the first impression of the flame, a quantity of expanded gas will rise into each bladder, which is to be pressed out at the close of the experiment, in order that the absorption may be compared in both cases. The diminution in the jar of oxygen gas will be found greatly to exceed that of the common air.

III. Take two tubes, each a few inches long, closed at one end, and divided into 100 aliquot parts. Fill the one with atmospherical air, the other with oxygen gas, and invert them in two separate cups filled with a solution of sulphuret of potash. The sulphuret will ascend gradually within the tube of common air, till, after a few days, only about four-fifths of its original volume will remain ; but, in that containing oxygen, it will ascend much higher, and, if the gas be pure, will even absorb the whole. The explanation of this fact is, that liquid sulphuret of potash has the property of absorbing oxygen, but not azote. It therefore acts on atmospheric air only as long as any oxygen gas remains, and may be employed as a means of ascertaining the quantity of this gas in the atmosphere at different times, and in distant places. An improved instrument, thus graduated, has lately been employed by Guyton as an *Eudiometer*,* (see Nicholson's Philosophical Journal, Vol. I. p. 268. ; or Tilloch's Philosophical Maga-

* Other Eudiometers will be described hereafter.

zinc, Vol. III. p. 171.) But an apparatus of much greater simplicity, and facility of application, is that of Professor Hope of Edinburgh, announced in Nicholson's Journal. IV. 210. It consists of a small bottle, of the capacity of 20 or 24 drachms (fig. 28. pl. ii.,) destined to contain the eudiometric liquid, and having a small stopper at *b*. Into the neck of the bottle a tube is accurately fitted, by grinding, which holds precisely a cubic inch, and is divided into 100 equal parts. To use the apparatus, the bottle is first filled with the liquid employed, which is best prepared by boiling a mixture of quicklime and sulphur with water, filtering the solution, and agitating it for some time in a bottle half-filled with common air. The tube, filled with the gas under examination, (or with atmospheric air, when the quality of this compound is to be ascertained) is next put into its place; and, on inverting the instrument, the gas ascends into the bottle, where it is brought extensively into contact with the liquid, by brisk agitation. An absorption ensues; and, to supply its place, the stopper *b* is opened under water, a quantity of which rushes into the bottle. The stopper is replaced under water; the agitation renewed; and these operations performed alternately, till no farther diminution takes place. The tube *a* is then withdrawn, the neck of the bottle being under water, and is held inverted in water for a few minutes; at the close of which the diminution will be apparent. Its amount may be measured by the graduated scale engraved on the tube.

IV. *Atmospheric air ministers to the support of animal life, only in consequence of the oxygen gas which it contains.*

—Air, after having been received into the lungs, and again expired, is found to have lost considerably of its oxygenous part, viz. 10 to 12 per cent. It proves fatal to animals, however, long before this purer portion is wholly exhausted; and hence it appears, that a considerable portion of oxygen gas is even necessary to fit the air for supporting respiration. As the analysis of expired air requires an acquaintance with another gas, not hitherto described, viz. carbonic acid, its examination will be postponed to a future occasion.

V. *Atmospheric air is diminished in volume by animal respiration.*—This may be shewn by repeating a very simple experiment. originally contrived by Mayow. He confi-

ned a mouse in a small glass jar, and tied the jar over, quickly and firmly, with moistened bladder. The heat of the animal first expanded the air, and rendered the bladder convex outwards, but when the animal had died, and had become cold, the bladder exhibited a hollow surface, proving that the air within was diminished in its bulk.

The exact amount of the diminution may be shewn, by confining a mouse, over water, in a graduated jar, furnished with a stop-cock, and containing common air. As the heat of the animal, however, would occasion the expulsion of part of the air, it is expedient, on first depressing the jar into water, to open the cock, through which a part of the air will escape: The cock is then to be shut, and the height of the water within to be accurately noted. At first, the level will be depressed, in consequence of the expansion of the air by the warmth of the animal; but, after its death, a considerable diminution will be observed.

SECT. V.

Hydrogen Gas.

I. *To procure hydrogen gas*, let sulphuric acid, previously diluted with five or six times its weight of water, be poured on iron filings, or on small iron nails, or on zinc, granulated by pouring it melted into cold water, in a gas bottle or small retort. An effervescence will ensue, and the escaping gas may be collected in the usual manner.

II. This gas has the following properties:

1. *It remains permanent over water*, or is not absorbed in any notable proportion.

2. *It is inflammable.* This may be shewn by the following experiments:

(a) Fill a small jar with the gas, and, holding it with the mouth downwards, bring the gas into contact with the flame of a candle. The air will take fire, and will burn silently with a lambent flame.

(b) Fill with this gas a bladder which is furnished with a stop-cock, and with a small pipe. less than
that of a common tobacco pipe. 1
the pipe, and, on presentii

will take fire. If this apparatus cannot be procured, a very simple contrivance will answer the purpose: Break off part of an eight-ounce vial, within an inch or two from the bottom, by setting fire to a string tied round it, and moistened with spirit of turpentine. The vial will then resemble a jar with an open neck at the top. Next bore a small hole, through a cork that fits the neck of the vial, and insert in it part of a common tobacco pipe, which may be fixed into the neck of the bottle, by a cement of resin and bees-wax. Then fill the bottle with water, and hold it, with the thumb pressed down on the aperture of the pipe, while hydrogen gas is passed into it. When the bottle is full of gas, remove the thumb, press the bottle down into the water, and, on the approach of a candle, the stream of air from the pipe will take fire.

Persons, who are provided with the jars represented plate ii. fig. 22. *a*, may screw to the cock a brass pipe with a small aperture. On pressing the jar, filled with hydrogen gas, into the water, and opening the cock, the gas will be forced out in a stream, which may be set on fire. On this principle are founded the artificial fire-works without smell or smoke. They consist of pipes, having variously sized apertures, some of which have a rotatory motion; but their precise construction it is impossible to describe, without very tedious details.

(*c*) In a strong bottle, capable of holding about four ounces of water, mix equal parts of common air and hydrogen gas. On applying a lighted candle, the mixture will burn, not silently, as in experiment (*a*), but with a sudden and loud explosion. If a larger bottle be used, it should be wrapped round with a handkerchief, to prevent the glass from doing any injury, in case the bottle should be burst.

(*d*) The same experiment may be repeated with oxygen gas, instead of atmospherical air; changing the proportions, and mixing only one part of oxygen gas with two of hydrogen. The report will be considerably louder. The bottle should be a very strong one, and should be wrapped round with cloth, to prevent an accident.*

* These experiments may also be made advantageously, by means of an apparatus, sold under the name of the inflammable air pistol.

(c) The same experiment may be made over water, by means of the electric spark. Procure a strong tube, about three quarters of an inch diameter, and twelve inches long, closed at one end (plate ii. fig. 28.). About a quarter or half-an-inch from the sealed end, let two small holes be drilled, opposite to each other, and into each of these let a brass conductor be cemented, so that the two points may be distant from each other, within the tube, about one-eighth of an inch. An apparatus, serving the same purpose, and much more easily constructed, may be formed by hermetically sealing a piece of brass wire into the end of a glass tube (fig. 29.). With this conductor, an interrupted circuit may be formed, by introducing into the tube a longer wire, one end of which terminates one-tenth of an inch from the upper one, while the other extends beyond the aperture of the tube. Into this tube, standing over water, pass about half a cubic inch of a mixture of hydrogen and oxygen gases, in the proportion of two measures of the former to one of the latter. Hold the tube firmly, and pass an electric spark through the mixed gases. An immediate explosion will take place; after which the gases, if pure, and in the proper proportion, will be found to have disappeared entirely.

If atmospherical air be employed, a diminution, though not equal in amount, will be produced by the union of the hydrogen with the oxygen gas contained in the air; and, if a sufficient quantity of hydrogen gas be employed, the whole of the atmospheric oxygen will thus be removed. On this principle is founded the EUDIOMETER OF VOLTA, which may be constructed, by graduating either of the tubes already described, into equal parts. If, in one of these tubes, we mix 300 parts of common air, and 200 of pure hydrogen gas, there will remain, after the explosion excited by passing an electric spark between the two wires, about 305 measures. There will, therefore, have been a diminution of 195 measures, of which pretty exactly one-third may be estimated to be pure oxygen. In this instance, therefore, 65 of oxygen have been lost by 300 of air, or 21 and a fraction *per cent.*

The general rule for ascertaining the purity of air by hydrogen gas, may be stated as follows: Add to three measures of the air under examination, two measures of pure hydrogen gas; inflame the mixture by electricity.

observe the diminution when the vessel has cooled; and, dividing its amount by three, we obtain pretty nearly the quantity of oxygen gas which has been condensed.

(*S*) The diminution of hydrogen and oxygen gases, by the union of their bases, may be shewn also by their slow combustion. Fill a tall jar with oxygen gas, and fill also, with hydrogen gas, a bladder furnished with a stop-cock, and with a long brass pipe, bent like the letter S, and drawn out to a fine point (plate iv. fig. 41.). On pressing the bladder, a stream of gas will issue from the pipe, which may be set fire to, and brought cautiously under the tall inverted jar of oxygen gas. By this contrivance, the stream of hydrogen gas will be burnt in a confined portion of oxygen gas; and, on continuing the combustion a sufficient length of time, the water will be seen to rise gradually within the jar. On the first impression of the heat, indeed, a quantity of gas will escape from the jar, which will render it difficult to ascertain what degree of absorption has actually taken place. But this loss may be prevented, by using a jar with a neck at the top, to which a compressed bladder is firmly tied. The expanded air, instead of escaping through the water, will now fill the bladder at the top; and, when the experiment has closed, and the vessels have cooled, it may be ascertained, by pressing out the gas from the bladder, what quantity of oxygen gas has been consumed.

The same experiment may be more accurately and elegantly made, by substituting for the bladder, a small gazometer, containing a measured quantity of hydrogen gas. Let the bent pipe be screwed on the cock of the gazometer; and over its open end, placed perpendicularly, invert a jar of oxygen gas. This jar must be provided at the top with a metallic conductor, screwed into a brass cap, as represented in fig. 41.; which shews also the level of the water within the jar, attained by means of a syphon. After noting the height of the water within, let a rapid succession of electric sparks be passed between the two conductors; and, on opening the cock at this instant, the stream of hydrogen gas will be inflamed. The end of the pipe must then be so far depressed, that the cement of the brass cap may not be melted by the flame; and the outer surface of the top of the vessel should be kept cool. When the gas is first lighted, the oxygen gas will be suddenly ex-

panded ; but, presently, a rapid diminution will go on, till the water rises above the end of the pipe and extinguishes the flame. If pure oxygen gas be employed, it will be found, after the experiment, uninjured in its quality, and will support the combustion of burning bodies as well as before.

When the above experiment is made, with the substitution of common air for oxygen gas, a diminution takes place, but much less considerable, viz. not amounting to one-sixth of the original bulk of the gas.

(g) When a stream of hydrogen gas is burned under a tube, eighteen or twenty-four inches long, a sound is produced. The experiment may be made in the following manner :

Into a glass bottle are put iron filings and sulphuric acid, diluted with five or six parts of water ; and a cork is fitted in to the neck, through which a glass tube is passed, having its upper extremity drawn out to a capillary bore. By setting fire to the hydrogen gas, which escapes from this extremity, a continued current or jet of flame is produced, which is allowed to pass into a tube of either glass, earthenware, or metal. If the tube be not too large, the flame becomes smaller as it is depressed ; and when the tube covers the flame to a considerable depth, very clear sounds are produced. But, on the contrary, if the tube be too narrow, the flame will be extinguished ; and, in proportion as the tube is enlarged, the sound diminishes : so that there is a certain limit at which it totally ceases. The same happens when the tube is too long. The sounds may be raised at pleasure, by either using tubes of various figures or dimensions, or made of different substances (See Nicholson's Journal 8vo. I. 129., and IV. 23.).

(h) In a memoir lately read to the National Institute of France, M. Biot announces the important fact, that a mixture of hydrogen and oxygen gases may be made to explode by mechanical compression. A mixture of these two gases was introduced into a strong syringe, furnished with a glass bottom, and a sudden stroke given to the piston. An extremely brilliant light appeared, accompanied with a loud detonation ; and the glass bottom was forcibly driven out. The repetition of this experiment, it is obvious, must be attended with considerable difficulty and danger (see Nicholson's Journal, XII. 212.).

1. The combustion of hydrogen and oxygen gas is successfully applied to the purpose of exciting an intense heat by the blow-pipe. The peculiar construction of the apparatus cannot be understood without a plate, which may be seen in the *Annales de Chimie*. It may be sufficient here to state, that the gases are contained each in a separate gas-holder; that they are expelled by the pressure of a column of water obtained by lengthening the pipe *b*, fig. 36.; and that their mixture does not, take place, till they nearly reach the aperture of the pipe, at the extremity of which they are inflamed. This last precaution is of considerable importance, because a violent and dangerous explosion would otherwise happen. To guard the more effectually against this accident, it is advisable to affix a valve, opening outwards, in the pipe proceeding from each gas-holder, just before the junction of the two.

2. *Hydrogen gas has an unpleasant smell.*

3. *Though inflammable itself, it extinguishes burning bodies.*—Bring an inverted jar, filled with this gas, over the flame of a candle; and suddenly depress the jar, so that the lighted wick may be wholly surrounded by the gas. The candle will immediately be extinguished.

4. *It is fatal to animals.*—This may be shewn by confining, in the gas, a mouse, or other small animal.

5. *It is considerably lighter than atmospherical air.*

(a) Let a jar, filled with this gas, stand, for a few seconds, with its open mouth upwards. On letting down a candle, the gas will be found to have escaped.

(b) Place another jar of the gas inverted, or with its mouth downwards. The gas will now be found to remain in the jar, being prevented from escaping upwards by the bottom and sides of the vessel.

(c) Fill, with hydrogen gas, a bladder furnished with a stop-cock; and adapt to this a common tobacco pipe. Dip the bowl of the pipe into a lather of soap, and, turning the cock, blow up the lather into bubbles. These bubbles, instead of falling to the ground, like those commonly blown by children, will rise rapidly into the air. On this property of hydrogen gas, is founded its application to the raising of balloons.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE COMPOSITION, DECOMPOSITION, AND PROPERTIES OF WATER.

SECT. I.

Synthesis of Water.

IN Chap. V. Sect. V. it was stated that oxygen and hydrogen gases, when fired over water, in the proper proportion, wholly disappear. To ascertain the nature of the product thus formed, however, the experiment must be repeated over mercury, in a similar manner, by means of the detonating tube (plate ii. fig. 28.) When this is done repeatedly, it is found that the product of the combustion is that well known fluid, water, which is thus proved to be composed of two elementary ingredients. The water, produced in this mode, is not, however, to be considered as a compound of the two gases, but only of their bases; for the light and caloric, which constituted the gases, escape, in considerable part, during the combustion. Every gas, it must be remembered, has at least two ingredients; the one, gravitating matter, which, if separate, would probably exist in a solid or liquid form; the other, an extremely subtile fluid, termed caloric. In the example before us, caloric (and perhaps light) is a common ingredient both of hydrogen and oxygen gases; but the two differ in having different bases. The basis of the one is called hydrogen, of the other oxygen; and water may, therefore, be affirmed to be a compound of hydrogen and oxygen. This may be proved in two modes, by synthesis, *i. e.* by joining together its two elementary ingredients; and by analysis, in other words, by separating the constituent parts of water, and again exhibiting them in a distinct form.

I. Fill, with hydrogen gas, a bladder, furnished with a stop-cock and bent pipe (fig. 41. *c.*,) as in the last chapter. Then pour into a shallow earthen dish as much quicksilver as will about half-fill it, and invert over this a glass bell, full of common air and perfectly dry. Expel the hydrogen gas through the pipe; light the stream, and bring it under the glass bell, by raising this, and depressing it into the mercury, as soon as the inflamed gas is introduced. A portion of air will escape, at first, in consequence of the rarefaction. As the combustion continues, water will form, and will condense on the sides of the glass. This water is produced by the union of hydrogen with the oxygen contained in atmospheric air.

II. Those persons who are not possessed of a sufficient quantity of quicksilver to repeat the above experiment, may substitute the following: Procure a large glass globe, capable of holding three or four quarts, and having two openings, opposite to each other, which may be drawn out for a short distance, like the neck of a retort. Inflame the stream of hydrogen gas, and introduce it into the centre of the globe. The rarefied and vitiated air will ascend through the aperture of the globe, and a constant supply of fresh air will be furnished from beneath. By this combustion, a quantity of water will be generated, which will be condensed on the inner surface of the vessel.

III. A simple and ingenious apparatus, less costly than any other, intended for the purpose of exhibiting the composition of water, is made by Mr. Cuthbertson of London. It may be seen described and figured in Nicholson's Journal, Vol. II. p. 235.; or in the Philosophical Magazine, Vol. II. p. 317.

In using this apparatus, however, instead of two glass receivers for the oxygen and hydrogen gases, standing inverted in a trough of water, I employ a couple of gazometers; and with this alteration, the experiment is more easily managed, as well as more striking. The apparatus, thus modified, consists of a large glass receiver or bottle *a*. (plate IV. fig. 34.) with an opening at the bottom, into which is cemented a piece of brass, perforated with two holes. This brass piece is represented of a larger size in fig. 33.; the aperture *a*. conveying the hydrogen gas, and *b*. the oxygen. Before commencing the ex-

periment, the cock *e*. fig. 34. is screwed, by means of a collar-joint,* to the cock *b*. of the gazometer fig. 35. containing oxygen gas; and to the cock *d*., by the same means, is affixed another gazometer, filled with hydrogen gas. When it is intended to ascertain, accurately, the proportions of gases consumed, the receiver *a*., previously weighed, is first exhausted by an air-pump, with which it may be connected by the female screw at *c*. The quantity of common air left in the receiver may be determined, by inclosing a gage within it. If the additional expence be not deemed an objection, it is advisable, that after exhausting the receiver, oxygen gas should be admitted; its contents be exhausted a second time; and again renewed by fresh oxygen from the gazometer, the quantity of which may be observed by the graduated scale. The receiver being thus filled with oxygen gas, and accurately closed by a cock at *c*., a succession of sparks is to be passed, from the prime conductor of an electrical machine, between the platina knob of the bent wire within the receiver, and the point of the brass cone. While the sparks are transmitted, the cock *d*. is to be opened. A stream of hydrogen gas will immediately issue from the aperture at the point of the cone, and will be inflamed by the electric spark, as represented fig. 33. The cock *e*. is now to be opened, and the size of the flame of hydrogen gas moderated by partly shutting the cock *d*. As the volume of hydrogen gas consumed is double that of the oxygen; and the pipe, which transmits it, is of less diameter than that conveying the latter, about twice the pressure is required to expel the hydrogen. This is given, by lessening, in that proportion, the weight of the counterpoises (*cc*. fig. 35.) of the gazometer containing hydrogen.

During the combustion, the moveable vessel *c*. fig. 35. of each gazometer descends; and, by observing the graduated scales, it will be seen that the hydrogen vessel falls twice as quick as that which holds the oxygen gas. It is necessary to keep the receiver *a*. cool by means of wet cloths; and, when this is done, the water, which is produced, will form into drops on the inside of the receiver, and collect at the bottom. At the conclusion of the experiment, the receiver is to be again weighed, and the in-

* See Plate V. fig. 47.

crease noted. The quantity of gases consumed is to be observed, and their actual weight computed, by means of the Table given in the Appendix. It will be found, that the weight of water produced is very nearly equal to that of the two gases expended; that is to say, excluding decimals, for every hundred grains of water in the receiver, eighty-five grains of oxygen gas, and fifteen grains of hydrogen gas, will have disappeared.

IV. By firing repeated portions of a mixture of oxygen and hydrogen gases over mercury, a sensible quantity of water will at last be produced.

SECT. II.

Analysis of Water.

The analytic experiments on water are of two kinds: 1st, Such as present us with one of its ingredients only, in a separate and distinct form; 2dly, Such as present us with its two component principles, the hydrogen and oxygen, mixed together in the state of gas.

I. Of the first kind are the following:

1. Procure a gun-barrel, the breech of which has been removed, so as to form a tube open at each end. Fill this with iron-wire, coiled up in a spiral form. To one end of the barrel adapt a small glass retort, partly filled with water, and to the other a bent glass tube, the open end of which terminates under the shelf of the pneumatic cistern. Let the barrel be placed horizontally, (or rather with that end, to which the retort is fixed, a little elevated,) in a furnace having two openings in its body opposite to each other. (plate IV. fig. 40.) Light a fire in the furnace; and, when the gun-barrel has become red-hot, apply a lamp under the retort. The steam of the water will pass over the red-hot iron, and will be decomposed. Its oxygen will unite with the iron; and its hydrogen will be obtained in the form of a gas. This is the readiest and cheapest mode of procuring hydrogen gas, when wanted in considerable quantity.

2. The same experiment may be repeated; substituting an earthen tube for a gun-barrel, and weighing the iron

wire accurately, both before and after the experiment. The iron will be found to have gained weight very considerably; and, if attention be paid to the weight of the water that escapes decomposition, by an addition to the apparatus, (fig. 40. *c.*) and to the weight of the gases obtained, it will be found, that the weight gained by the iron, added to that of the hydrogen gas, will make up exactly the weight of the water that has disappeared. From experiments of this kind, conducted with the utmost attention to accuracy, as well as from synthetic experiments, it appears, that water is compounded of 85 per cent. oxygen, and 15 hydrogen, by weight, very nearly. But as hydrogen gas is eleven times lighter than common air, the proportion of gases, by volume, required to form water, is about two of hydrogen to one of oxygen gas.

3. Water may be decomposed, in a similar apparatus, over charcoal instead of iron. The results, however, are different in this case, as will appear from a subsequent section.

4. Another mode of effecting the decomposition of water yet remains to be mentioned, in which not the hydrogen, but the oxygen is obtained in a gaseous state. This is by the action of living vegetables; either entire, or by means of their leaves only. Fill a clear glass globe with water, and put into it a number of green leaves, from almost any tree or plant. A sprig or two of mint will answer the purpose perfectly well. Invert the glass, or place it, with its mouth downwards, in a vessel of water. Expose the whole apparatus to the direct light of the sun, which will then fall on the leaves surrounded by water. Bubbles of air will soon begin to form on the leaves, and will increase in size, till at last they rise to the top of the vessel. This process may be carried on as long as the vegetable continues healthy; and the gas, when examined, will prove to be oxygen gas, nearly pure. In this experiment, the hydrogen combines with the plant, to the nourishment and support of which it contributes, while the oxygen is set at liberty.

II. The processes, by which the elementary parts of water are separated from each other, and are both presented in an aëriform state, as a mixture of hydrogen and oxygen gases, are dependent on the agency of electricity.

1. The first of these experiments requires for its performance the aid of a powerful electrical machine. This fact was the discovery of a society of ingenious Dutch chemists; and the principal circumstance, in the experiment, is the transmission of electrical shocks, through a confined portion of water. The apparatus employed, in this experiment of Messrs. Dieman and Van Troostwyk, is a glass tube, about one-eighth of an inch diameter, and twelve inches long, one of the ends of which is sealed hermetically, a gold wire being inserted at this end, and projecting about an inch-and-a-half within the tube. About the distance of five-eighths of an inch from the extremity of this, another wire is to be fixed, which may extend to the open end of the tube. The tube is next to be filled with distilled water, and to be placed inverted in a vessel of the same. When thus disposed, electrical shocks are to be passed between the two ends of the wire, through the water; and, if these shocks be sufficiently strong, bubbles of air will be formed at each explosion, and will ascend till the upper part of the wire is uncovered by the water. As soon as this is effected, the next shock that is passed will set fire to the air, and the water will rise again in the tube, a very small quantity of gas remaining. Now, as hydrogen and oxygen gases, in a state of admixture, are the only ones that are capable of being inflamed by the electric shock; and as there is nothing in the tube, besides water, that can afford them in this experiment, we may safely infer, that the evolved hydrogen and oxygen gases arise from decomposed water.

2. An improved apparatus, exhibiting the same experiment, with less trouble to the operator, has been invented by Mr. Cuthbertson, and may be seen described and figured in Dr. Pearson's paper in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1797, or in *Nicholson's Journal*, Vols. I. and II. 4to.

3. The same experiment may be performed with the aid of an apparatus of great simplicity, and which it is in the power of almost any person to make for himself. This is the newly discovered pile of Signior Volta; a discovery which, for curiosity and importance, in a philosophical view, ranks with the first that have been made during the past century. It is constructed in the following manner :

Procure, at a brazier's or coppersmith's, thirty, forty, or fifty pieces of zinc or speltre, cast in sand, of the size of half-crowns or shillings, but rather thicker. A corresponding number of half-crowns or shillings will also be required, according to the size of the pieces of zinc that may be employed. Let an equal number of pieces of woollen cloth be cut, of a circular shape, to correspond with the pieces of zinc; and steep these in a strong solution of common salt in water. Then dispose the three substances alternately in the following order; silver, zinc, moistened cloth; silver, zinc, &c. till a sufficient number of these triplicates, not less than twenty or thirty, have been thus arranged, the silver terminating the pile at the top. In order to facilitate the touching of the bottom piece of silver, it may be well to put under it a slip of tinfoil, or Dutch leaf, which may project a few inches. Next, let the hands be moistened with salt and water, and, on touching the piece of tinfoil with one hand, and the uppermost piece of silver with the other, a shock will pass through the arms, which will be strong in proportion to the number of pieces of zinc, &c. that are employed.

The silver and zinc plates may also be more commodiously arranged in a mahogany trough. (plate IV. fig. 37.) When intended for this purpose, they must be cast in squares of about two inches and a half, and must be let down, and well cemented, into grooves cut in the wood. The two metals may be in contact, and may even be soldered together; and between each pair of plates a cell is to be left for containing the liquid to be employed. Troughs of this kind are much more powerful, and are kept in order with less trouble than the pile.

With this apparatus, the decomposition of water is effected with the utmost facility. Take a narrow glass tube, three or four inches long; fit each end with a cork, penetrated by a piece of slender iron-wire, and fill the tube with water. Let the ends of the two wires be distant from each other about three-fourths of an inch; and let the one be made to communicate with the bottom of the pile, the other with the top. (see fig. 37. b.) On making this communication, bubbles of air will form, and will ascend to the top of the tube; the wire being rapidly oxydated. In this experiment, water is decomposed: its oxygen unites with the iron, while its hydrogen appears in the state of gas.

If this experiment be made with the substitution, for iron, of some metal that is not oxydized by water, as gold, for example, we obtain a mixture of hydrogen and oxygen gases, as in the experiment of Messrs. Dieman and Van Troostwyk.

A very evident difference may be observed in the quantity of gas extricated from the two wires. That connected with the zinc end (which, for the sake of distinction, may be called the zinc-wire) is much less in quantity, than what issues from the copper-wire. By a slight variation in the apparatus, we may obtain these two gases separately,* viz. by placing the two wires in separate legs of a syphon, as represented in Nicholson's Journal, 4to. Vol. IV. plate 21. On examining the gases, the portion evolved by the zinc-wire will be found to be oxygen, and that from the copper-wire hydrogen, in the proportion by measure of one of the former to two of the latter.

In Mr. Nicholson's Journal, 4to. Vols. IV. and V. a variety of interesting observations on the phenomena produced by Volta's Galvanic Pile, have been published by Messrs. Nicholson, Carlisle, Cruickshank, Davy, and others.

SECT. III.

Properties and Effects of Water.†

I. *Water contains air.*—This may be shown by placing a glass vessel of water under the receiver of an air-pump. During the exhaustion of the receiver, bubbles of air will be seen to ascend very plentifully. Much air escapes also from water, during ebullition, and may be collected by a proper apparatus. The same fact may also be exhibited, by filling a barometer tube, about thirty-two inches long, sealed at one end, with quicksilver, except about four inches, and the remainder with water. On inverting the

* The separation, however, is by no means complete.

† Whenever, in the course of this work, water is mentioned as an agent in any chemical operation, pure distilled water is to be understood.

open end of the tube in quicksilver, bubbles of air will be seen, in a short time, to rise from the water.

II. *Water is contained in the air of the atmosphere, even during the driest weather.*—Expose to the air, in a shallow vessel, a little carbonate of pot-ash (not crystallized, but the common salt of tartar.) In a few days it will have become moist, or *deliquated*. On the same principle, water exposed to the air, in a shallow vessel, disappears, being dissolved by the atmosphere.

III. *Water dissolves a great variety of solid bodies.*—The substances, on which it exerts this effect, are said to be soluble in water; and there are various degrees of solubility. See chap. ii.

IV. *During the solution of bodies in water, a change of temperature ensues.*—In most instances, an absorption of caloric (in other words, a production of cold) is attendant on solution, as in the examples given in chap. iii. sect. 2. But, in other cases, caloric is evolved, or heat is produced. Thus, common salt of tartar, during solution in water, raises the temperature of its solvent; and caustic pot-ash, in a state of dryness, does the same still more remarkably. Both carbonated and pure potash, however, when crystallized, observe the usual law, and absorb caloric during solution. Now as their difference, in the crystallized and uncrystallized state, depends chiefly on their containing in the former, but not in the latter, water chemically combined, we may infer, that the cold, produced during the solution of salts, is occasioned by the conversion of the water, which exists in these bodies, from a solid to a liquid form.

V. *During the solution of salts in water, a quantity of air is disengaged.*—This air was partly contained mechanically in the salt, and partly in the water. That it does not arise entirely from the former source, is proved by varying the experiment in the following manner. Let an ounce or two of sulphate of soda be put into a vial, and pour on this as much water as will completely fill the bottle. The air contained in the pores of the salt will be thus disengaged; but only a small portion of the salt will be dissolved, agreeably to the principle laid down, chap. 2. vii. Let the vial be shaken, and the whole of the salt will disappear; a fresh portion of air being liberated during solution. The air, that now appears, is extricated from the water, in con-

sequence of the affinity between the water and the salt being stronger than that between the water and the air. It is, therefore, a case of single elective affinity.

VI. *During the solution of bodies, the bulk of water changes.*—Take a glass globe, furnished with a long narrow neck (commonly termed a matrass, see fig. 4.), and put into it an ounce or two of sulphate of soda. Then, add as much water as will fill the globe, and about three-fourths of the neck. This should be done with as little agitation as possible, in order that the salt may not dissolve, till required. Mark, by tying a little thread, the line where the water stands; and then agitate the matrass. The salt will dissolve; air will be set at liberty; and during the solution, the water will sink considerably below its level. The contraction of bulk is owing to the diminution of temperature; and, when the water has regained its former temperature, it will also be found, that its bulk is increased by the addition of salt. The Bishop of Llandaff observed, that water exhibits a manifest augmentation of bulk, by dissolving only the two-thousandth part of its weight of salt; a fact sufficiently decisive against that theory, which supposes pores in water capable of receiving saline bodies without an augmentation of volume.

VII. *Water has its solvent power increased, by diminishing the pressure of the atmosphere.*—Into a Florence flask, put half-a-pound of sulphate of soda; pour on it barely a pint of water, and apply heat so as to boil the water. The whole of the salt will be dissolved. Boil the solution for several minutes pretty strongly, so as to drive out the air; and cork the bottle tightly, immediately on its removal from the fire. To prevent more completely the admission of air, tie the cork over with bladder. As the vessel cools, an imperfect vacuum will be formed over the solution; for the steam, which arises during the ebullition, expels the air, and takes its place. The steam is condensed again, when the vessel cools. The solution, when perfectly cold, may be shaken without any effect ensuing, so long as the vessel is kept closely stopped; but, on removing the cork and shaking the vessel, the solution will immediately congeal, and heat will be produced. This experiment, besides the principle which it is peculiarly intended to illustrate, exemplifies also the general rule laid down, Chap. III. sect. 2. vi. viz. that caloric is always evolved, during the

transition of bodies from a fluid to a solid state; and it furnishes a fact exactly the reverse of that in which cold is produced, or caloric absorbed, during the solution of salts.

VIII. It is unnecessary to add any thing to what has been already said in a former section, respecting the combination of caloric with water constituting steam; or to the history of the phenomena attending its conversion into ice; except that, during the latter change, its bulk is enlarged in the proportion of nine to eight, and that, in consequence of this expansion, water, during congelation, is capable of bursting the strongest iron vessels; and becomes specifically lighter. Hence, ice swims always on the surface of the water.

It is remarkable, that this enlargement of the bulk of water begins long before its temperature has descended to the freezing point, viz. at about 40° Fahrenheit. Let a thermometer bulb, and part of its tube, having a wide bore, be filled with water, tinged with a little litmus, which may be introduced by the same means as those already directed for filling with quicksilver. Immerse the thermometer in water of the temperature of 40° ; and, when the included water may be supposed to have attained the same degree of heat, remove the instrument successively into water of the temperature of 36° and 32° . At each immersion, the water will rise in the tube. Bring its temperature again to 40° , and it will descend to the same point as before. Place it in water of 50° , and it will again be expanded. Precisely similar effects, therefore, appear to result, in these experiments, from two opposite causes; for the bulk of water is alike increased by reducing or raising its temperature. It is contended, however, by Mr. Dalton, that, in the apparent expansion by a lower temperature, there is a deception, arising from the contraction of the glass, which must lessen the capacity of the bulb, and force the water up the stem. The question is not yet decided; and is still contested by Mr. Dalton against the experiments of Count Rumford and of Dr. Hope.

CHAP. VII.

ALKALIS.

General Qualities.

The properties, common to all the three alkalis, may be shown by those of a solution of pure potash.

(a.) The alkalis change vegetable blue colours, as that of an infusion of violets, to green.

(b.) They have an acrid and peculiar taste.

(c.) They serve as the intermedia between oils and water.

(d.) They corrode woollen cloth; and, if the solution be sufficiently strong, reduce it to the form of a jelly.

(e.) They are readily soluble in water.

SECT. I.

Pure Potash and Pure Soda.

To prepare pure potash, dissolve any quantity of American or Dantzic pearl-ash in twice its weight of boiling water, and add the solution, while hot, to an equal weight of fresh quicklime, slaked to a paste with water. Boil the mixture in an iron kettle, adding as much water as is necessary to reduce it to a proper consistence, (about that of cream,) and continue stirring during an hour. Then separate the liquid alkali, either by filtering or by subsidence, and boil it to dryness in a silver dish. Pour, on the dry mass, as much pure alcohol as is required to dissolve it; put the solution into a bottle, and let the insoluble part settle to the bottom. Then decant the alcoholic solution of potash, which swims at the top, and distil off the alco-

bol in an alembic* of pure silver, furnished with a glass head. Pour the alkali, when in fusion, upon a silver dish, and, when cold, break it into pieces, and preserve it in a well-stopped bottle. If the distillation of the alcohol be not carried so far, the alkali will shoot, on cooling, into regular crystals.

In the same mode may pure soda be prepared, substituting the carbonate of soda for the pearl-ash.

These alkalis have the following properties ;

(a.) They powerfully attract moisture from the atmosphere, or deliquesce.

(b.) They readily dissolve in water, and produce heat during their solution, if the fused alkalis be employed ; but the crystallized alkalis generate cold, when dissolved.

(c.) They are not volatilized by a moderate heat, and hence have been called, fixed alkalis.

SECT. II.

Pure Ammonia.

I. Ammonia, in its purest form, subsists in the state of a gas. In order to procure it, one of the following processes may be employed.

(a.) Mix together equal parts of muriate of ammonia and quicklime, each separately powdered ; and introduce them into a small gas-bottle or retort. Apply the heat of a lamp ; and receive the gas, that is liberated, over mercury.

(b.) To a saturated solution of ammonia in water, or the pure liquid ammonia, in a gas-bottle, apply the heat of a lamp ; and collect the gas, as in a.

II. This gas has the following properties :

(a.) It has a strong and very pungent smell.

(b.) It immediately extinguishes flame ; and is fatal to animals. Before, however, a candle is extinguished, by immersion in this gas, the flame is enlarged, by the addition of another, of a pale yellow colour, which descends from the mouth of the jar to the bottom. If the flame of

* The figure of an alembic may be seen in Plate I. fig. 2.

the candle be only in part immersed in the gas, this yellowish flame rises a few lines above the other.

(c.) It is lighter than atmospheric air. Hence a jar filled with this gas, and placed with its mouth upwards, is soon found to change its contents for common air, which, being heavier, descends, and displaces the ammoniacal gas. One hundred cubic inches of this gas weigh 18 grains.

(d.) It is not inflammable; nor does it explode when mixed with hydrogen gas.

(e.) It is rapidly absorbed by water. A drop or two of water being admitted to a jar of this gas, confined over mercury, the gas will be immediately absorbed, and the mercury will rise, so as to fill the whole of the jar, provided the gas be sufficiently pure. Ice produces the same effect, in a still more remarkable manner. From Mr. Davy's experiments, it appears that 100 grains of water absorb 34 grains of ammoniacal gas, or 190 cubic inches. Therefore a cubic inch of water takes up 475 cubic inches of the gas.

Alcohol, also, absorbs several times its bulk, and affords a solution of ammonia in alcohol, which possesses the strong smell and other properties of the gas.

(f.) Water, by saturation with this gas, acquires its peculiar smell; and constitutes what has been called liquid ammonia; or, more properly, solution of pure ammonia in water. The method of effecting this impregnation will be described hereafter; and processes will be given for obtaining the solution of ammonia in considerable quantity, which cannot conveniently be accomplished, as in the experiment c. This solution again yields its gas on applying heat. (see I. b.)

(g.) This gas is decomposed by electricity.—Provide a tube furnished with two conductors (fig. 28.) and, having admitted about a cubic inch of ammoniacal gas, pass through it a succession of electrical discharges. When 150 or 200 shocks have been passed, the gas will have increased to three times its original bulk. Admit a small quantity of water; the gas will not, as before, be completely absorbed by the water, but a part will remain. Hence it appears that some new gas has been generated. Admit to this gas about one-fourth its bulk of oxygen gas of known purity, and pass an electric spark through the mixture. A detonation will take place, which will be fol-

lowed by a considerable diminution of volume. Of this absorption, two-thirds are owing to the condensation of hydrogen gas. There is still, however, a considerable residue of gas, which most probably contains a redundancy of oxygen. This may be absorbed by the sulphuret of lime, and the remainder will be found to be azotic gas. Hence it appears, that ammonia yields, when submitted to electricity, hydrogen and azotic gases; and is therefore a compound of hydrogen and azote. The proportion in which these gases are obtained, is about 35 of the former to 105 of the latter; and, calculating from their known gravity, it is inferred, that 100 parts of pure gaseous ammonia are composed, by weight, of 20 hydrogen and 80 azote.

(h.) The decomposition of ammonia may also be easily shown, by galvanizing, with the apparatus described page 81, a saturated solution of ammonia in water. In this experiment a considerable quantity of gas is produced. Expose it over a solution of sulphuret of potash. A small part of it, being oxygen gas, will disappear. The remainder consists of hydrogen and azotic gases.

CHAP. VIII.

EARTHS.

THE term earth was, till lately, employed to denote "a tasteless, inodorous, dry, brittle, and unflammable substance, not more than five times heavier than water." This definition, however, was rendered imperfect by the discovery, that certain earths have a strong taste, and are readily soluble in water, which yet possess the other characters of earthy bodies. Some of the earths were therefore removed from this class, and arranged among the alkalis. The classification, however, which appears to me most eligible, is that which divides them into *earths* simply, and *alkaline earths*; the latter partaking of the characters both of earths and alkalis. The alkaline earths are Ba-

rytes, Strontites, Lime, and Magnesia. The earths are Silix, Alumine, Zircon, Glucine, and Yttria.*

The most important properties of the earths are those depending on their relation to acids, a class of bodies, which will be described in the sequel. In this chapter, therefore, I shall describe only the effects produced on them by caloric; by water; by alkalis; and their combinations with each other.

SECT. 1.

Barytes.

Barytes may be obtained in a state of purity, by the calcination of its carbonate or nitrate, in a manner which will be hereafter described. It exhibits, when pure, the following properties.

I. Barytes, in a pure form, has a sharp caustic taste, changes vegetable blue colours to green; and serves as the intermedium between oil and water: In these respects, it bears a strong resemblance to alkalis.

II. When exposed to the flame of the blow-pipe on charcoal, it melts; boils violently; and forms small globules, which sink into the charcoal. If perfectly free from water, however, it is infusible.

III. If a small quantity of water be added to recently prepared barytes, it is absorbed with great rapidity; prodigious heat is excited; and the water is completely solidified, a sort of hard cement being obtained. A little more water converts this mass into a light bulky powder; and, when completely covered with water, the barytes is dissolved. Boiling water should be employed for this purpose; unless sufficient temperature has been produced, by the sudden addition of the whole quantity necessary for solution.

IV. When the solution, prepared with boiling water, is allowed to cool slowly, it shoots into regular crystals. These have the form of flattened hexagonal prisms, ha-

* The Agustine of Tromsdorff has been shown, by Barthollet, to be merely Phosphate of Lime. Nich. Journ. 8vo. VII. 117.

ving two broad sides, with two intervening narrow ones ; and terminated, at each end, by a quadrangular pyramid.

V. The crystals are so soluble, as to be taken up, when heated, merely by their own water of crystallization. When exposed to a stronger heat, they swell, foam, and leave a dry white powder, amounting to about 47 parts from 100 of the crystals. This again combines with water with great heat and violence. At 60° of Fahrenheit, an ounce-measure of water dissolves only 25 grains of the crystals, i. e. they require for solution, $17\frac{1}{2}$ times their weight of water. Exposed to the atmosphere, they effloresce, and become pulverulent.

VI. When added to spirit of wine, and heated in a spoon over a lamp, they communicate a yellowish colour to its flame.

VII. The specific gravity of this earth, according to Fourcroy, is 4, but Hassenfratz states it at only 2,374. The former account, however, is the more probable. All its combinations have considerable specific gravity ; and hence its name is derived, viz. from the Greek word *βαρύς* signifying heavy.

VIII. Barytes does not unite with any of the alkalis.

SECT. II.

Strontites.

I. Strontites (called also Strontia, from Strontian in Scotland, the place where it was first discovered) resembles barytes in many of its properties ; and all that is included in the three first paragraphs of the last section may be applied, also, to this earth.

II. Like barytes, strontites is readily soluble in boiling water ; and the solution, on cooling, affords regular crystals ; but the shape of these differs considerably from that of barytic crystals. The crystals of strontites are thin quadrangular plates ; sometimes square, oftener parallelograms ; not exceeding in length, and not reaching in breadth, a quarter of an inch. Sometimes their edges are plain, but they oftener consist of two facets, meeting together, and forming an angle like the roof of a house.

They adhere to each other in such a manner as to form a thin plate, of an inch or more in length, and half-an-inch in breadth. Sometimes they assume a cubic form.

III. These crystals undergo, by the action of heat, much the same changes as those of barytes; and leave only about 32 per cent. of the dry earth. One part of the crystals requires about $51\frac{1}{2}$ of water at the temperature of 60° for solution, but boiling water takes up half its weight.

IV. Boiling alcohol, with the addition of these crystals, burns with a blood-red flame.

V. Strontites does not combine with alkalis. Barytes has no affinity for it; for no precipitation ensues, on mixing the watery solutions of the two earths.

From the preceding enumeration of its characters, it appears that strontites differs from barytes, in the different form of its crystals, which contain also more combined water, and are less soluble than those of barytes; and in affording, with alcohol, a flame of different colour. Other circumstances of distinction will be stated hereafter.

SECT. III.

Lime.

I. *Its external qualities.*—These may be exhibited in common quicklime, such as is employed for the purposes of building or agriculture. In the same state, it is sufficiently pure for demonstrating its chemical properties; but, when used for purposes of the latter kind, it should be fresh burnt from the kiln.

II. *Relation of lime to water.*

(a) Lime absorbs water very rapidly with considerable heat and noise. This may be shown by sprinkling a little water on some dry quicklime. The above-mentioned phenomena will take place, and the lime will fall into powder. The degree of heat produced is sufficient to set fire to some inflammable bodies; and when a large quantity of lime is suddenly slaked in a dark place, even light, according to Pelletier, is sometimes evolved. The caloric, which is thus set at liberty, is doubtless that contained in the water, and essential to its fluidity. By combination with lime, water passes to a solid state, and proba-

bly even to a state of much greater solidity than that of ice. Hence, during this change, it evolves more caloric than during conversion into ice; and hence even ice itself, when mixed with quicklime, in the proportion of one to two, enters into combination, and has its temperature raised to 212° . When a sufficient quantity of water has been added to reduce lime into a thin paste, this is called milk or cream of lime.

Lime is, in some degree, convertible into vapour by combination with water. When a piece of moistened paper, stained with the juice of the violet, is held in the steam, which arises from lime suddenly slaked, its colour is changed from blue to green. Hence the smell which is perceived during the slaking of lime.

(b) Lime absorbs moisture from the atmosphere, and falls gradually into powder.

(c) Lime is very sparingly soluble in water, viz. in the proportion of about 1 to 500; and, when thus dissolved, forms what has been termed lime-water. This solution tastes of lime, turns vegetable blues to green, and unites with oil, forming an imperfect soap. To prepare the solution, lime is to be slaked to a thin paste, and a sufficient quantity of boiling water afterwards added. The mixture is to be stirred repeatedly, the lime allowed to settle, and the clear liquor decanted for use. It must be preserved in close vessels.

(d) Lime, according to Tromsdorff, is susceptible of crystallization, by the following process:—Let four parts of liquid muriate of lime (a salt which will be described in the sequel,) and one part of lime, be mixed together. Boil the liquid till a drop, on cooling, assumes the consistence of syrup; and then filter it through a cloth into an earthen vessel, which must be covered with a lid. When this liquid is allowed to cool slowly, long needle-shaped crystals of pure lime are said to shoot in it. The experiment succeeds only, it is asserted, on a large scale, and when several pounds of muriate of lime are employed. The crystals, thus obtained, have since, however, been shewn to be merely a sub-muriate of lime.*

(e) Lime does not combine, in any notable proportion, with the alkalis or earths already described.

* Berthollet, Nich. Journ. 8vo. VII. 319.

SECT. IV.

Magnesia.

MAGNESIA possesses the properties of an alkali, but in a considerably less degree than any of the foregoing earths. Its characters are as follow :

I. When perfectly pure, it is entirely destitute of taste or smell.

II. No heat is excited by the affusion of water, and only a very small proportion, not exceeding 1-2000 its weight, of the earth is dissolved. Magnesia appears, however to have some affinity for water; for when moistened, and afterwards dried, its weight is found increased in the proportion of 118 to 100.

III. Magnesia changes to green the blue colour of the violet; but the watery solution, when filtered, does not produce a similar effect.

IV. It is not dissolved by liquid alkalis, nor by alkaline earths; and in the dry way, it has no affinity for barytes or strontites.

SECT. V.

Silex.

I. Silicious earth, or silex, may be obtained tolerably pure from flints by the following process :—Procure some common gun-flints, and calcine them in a crucible in a red heat. By this treatment they will become brittle, and easily reducible to powder. Mix them, when pulverized, with three or four times their weight of carbonate of potash, and let the mixture be fused in a strong red-heat, in a crucible. The materials must bear only a small proportion to the capacity of the crucible; and the heat must at first be very moderate, and slowly increased. Even with this precaution, the mass, on entering into fusion, will be apt to overflow; and must be pressed down as it rises, by an iron rod. When this effervescence has ceased, let the heat be considerably raised, so that the materials may be in perfect fusion during half an hour, and

pour the melted mass on a copper or iron dish. We shall thus obtain a compound of alkali and silicious earth. Dissolve this in water, filtre the solution, and add to it diluted sulphuric or muriatic acid. An immediate precipitation will ensue, and, as long as this continues, add fresh portions of acid. Let the precipitate subside, pour off the liquor that floats above it, and wash the sediment with hot water, till it comes off tasteless. Then dry it.

II. Silicious earth, as thus obtained, has the following qualities :

(a.) It is perfectly white and tasteless.

(b.) When mixed with water, it does not form a cohesive mass like alumine, and has a dry and harsh feel to the fingers.

(c.) It is insoluble in water. Yet, when fresh precipitated, water has the property of retaining in solution about one-thousandth of its weight.* That silex, however, is dissolved in water by processes of nature, can scarcely be doubted, when it is considered, that it is found, in considerable quantities, in a crystallized form.

(d.) It is not acted on by any acid, except the fluoric.

(e.) When prepared in the foregoing manner, and very minutely divided, silex is taken up by a solution of pure potash, or of soda, but not by ammonia. In the aggregated state of flints, however, it is perfectly insoluble in this way, an excellent illustration of the principle laid down, chap. 2. iii.

(f.) When mixed with an equal weight of carbonate of potash, and exposed to a strong heat in a furnace, it forms a glass, insoluble in water, and identical in all its properties with the glass commonly manufactured. It is owing to the silicious earth which it contains, that glass is decomposed by the fluoric acid. Glass, however, has occasionally other ingredients, besides the two that have been mentioned.

(g.) With a larger proportion of alkali, as three or four parts to one of silex, this earth affords a compound called, by Dr. Black, *silicated alkali*. This compound, formed by the process which has been just described, is soluble in water, and affords a good example of the total change of the properties of bodies by chemical union; for, in a se-

* See Klaproth's Contributions, Vol. I. p. 399, 400.

parate state, no substance whatever is more difficult of solution than silex. The solution of silicated alkali was formerly termed, *liquor silicum*, or *liquor of flints*. Acids seize the alkali, and precipitate the silex, which is even separated by mere exposure to the atmosphere, in consequence of the absorption of carbonic acid by the alkali.

(h.) Barytes, or strontites, and silex combine together, in a manner similar to the union of this earth with alkalis; but the combination has not been applied to any useful purpose.

(i.) When a solution of silex in potash is mingled with one of barytes, of strontites, or of lime in water, or of alumine in alkali, a precipitation ensues. Hence silex may be inferred to have an affinity for all these earths, in the humid way.

SECT. VI.

Alumine.

I. *Alumine may be obtained free from other earths, but still combined with carbonic acid, by precipitating a solution of alum in water by the crystallized carbonate of potash. To secure its complete purification from sulphuric acid, Guyton advises that the precipitate be redissolved in nitric acid, that nitrate of barytes be cautiously added to the solution, till it no longer occasions milkiness, and that the alumine be afterwards precipitated, or separated from the nitric acid by heat. (Ann. de Chim. xxxii. 64.)*

II. *Alumine has the following properties:*

1. *It is destitute of taste and smell.*
2. *When moistened with water, it forms a cohesive and ductile mass, susceptible of being moulded into a regular form. It is not soluble in water; but retains a considerable quantity.*
3. *It does not affect blue vegetable colours.*
4. *It is dissolved by the liquid fixed alkalis, and is precipitated by acids unchanged. In ammonia, it is very sparingly soluble.*
5. *Barytes and strontites combine with alumine, both by fusion and in the humid way. In the first case, the re-*

sult is a greenish or blueish coloured mass. In the second, two compounds are formed. The first, containing an excess of alumine, is in the state of an insoluble powder; the other, having an excess of the alkaline earth, remains in solution. Alumine may be united, by fusion, with the fixed alkalis, and with most of the earths.

6. Alumine, as will be afterward shewn, has a strong affinity for colouring matter.

7. Alumine has the property of shrinking considerably in bulk, when exposed to heat, and its contraction is in proportion to the intensity of the heat applied. On this property is founded the *pyrometer of Wedgwood*, which measures high degrees of heat, by the amount of the contraction of regularly shaped pieces of china clay. The pieces of clay are small cylinders, half an inch in diameter, flattened on the under surface, and baked in a low red heat. The contraction of these pieces is measured, by putting them between two fixed rulers of brass or porcelain, twenty-four inches long, half an inch distant from each other at one end, and three-tenths of an inch at the other. The rulers are divided into 240 equal parts, called degrees, which commence at the wider end; and each of which is equal to 130° of Fahrenheit. When the clay piece is fixed in its place, before exposure to heat, it is stationary at the first degree, which indicates about 1077° of Fahrenheit. After being strongly heated, in a small case which defends it from the fuel, its bulk is diminished, and it slides down, between the converging rulers, till stopped by their approach. The number on the graduated scale, opposite to the upper end of the piece, indicates the degree of heat to which it has been exposed.

SECT. VII.

Zircon.

I. This earth was discovered by Klaproth in the year 1789, in a precious stone from the island of Ceylon, called Jargon or Zircon; and has since been detected in the hyacinth. It may be obtained by the following process:

Reduce the hyacinth to fine powder, which may be done in an agate mortar, after previously igniting the

stone, and plunging it into cold water, to render it brittle. Mix the powder with nine times its weight of pure pot-ash; and project it, by a spoonful at once, into a red-hot crucible, taking care not to add fresh portions till the former ones are melted. When the whole is in fusion, increase the heat for an hour or an hour and a half. When the crucible has cooled, break it, and detach its contents; reduce them to powder, and boil them with distilled water. Let the insoluble part subside; decant the clear liquor, and wash the sediment with water, till the washings cease to precipitate muriated barytes. On the residuum pour muriatic acid to excess, and boil it during a quarter of an hour; filter the liquor, and evaporate to dryness in a leaden vessel. Re-dissolve the dry mass; filter again, and precipitate the zircon with carbonate of soda. The carbonate of zircon is thus obtained, from which the carbonic acid may be expelled by calcination.

II. Zircon has the following properties:

1. It has the form of a fine white powder, which has somewhat the harsh feel of silex, when rubbed between the fingers. It is entirely destitute of taste and smell.
2. It is insoluble in water; yet it appears to have some affinity for that fluid, for it retains, when slowly dried after precipitation, one-third its weight, and assumes a yellow colour and slight transparency, like that of gum Arabic.
3. It is insoluble in pure liquid alkalis; nor does it even combine with them by fusion; but it is soluble in alkaline carbonates. In the foregoing process, therefore, the carbonate of soda should not be added to excess.
4. Exposed to a strong heat, zircon fuses, assumes a light grey colour; and such hardness, on cooling, as to strike fire with steel, and to scratch glass.
5. Its action on other earths has not been fully investigated.

SECT. VIII.

Glucine.

I. This earth was discovered by Vauquelin, in the year 1798. He obtained it from the aqua marine or beryl, a precious stone of a green colour, and very considerable hardness, which is found crystallized in Siberia. Glucine has since been detected in the emerald of Peru, and in the gadolinite. The following process may be employed to separate it from the beryl :

Let the stone, reduced to a fine powder, be fused with three times its weight of pure potash. To the fused mass add a quantity of water, and afterwards diluted muriatic acid ; which last will effect a complete solution. Evaporate the solution to dryness, re-dissolve the dry mass, and add carbonate of potash as long as any precipitation ensues. Dissolve the precipitate in sulphuric acid, add the sulphate of potash ; and, on evaporation, crystals of alum will be obtained. By this process the alumine is detached. The residuary liquor, which yields no more crystals, contains the glucine, and a small portion of alumine. Add a solution of carbonate of ammonia to excess ; this will throw down the alumine, and the glucine will remain dissolved by the superabundant carbonate. When this solution is evaporated to dryness, and moderately heated, the alkaline carbonate is expelled, and a carbonate of glucine remains, in the proportion of 16 parts from every 100 parts of the stone.

II. Glucine has the following properties :

1. It is a fine white and soft powder, resembling alumine in its sensible properties ; and, like that earth, adhering to the tongue.

2. It has no action on blue vegetable colours.

3. It does not harden, or contract, like alumine, by heat ; and is infusible.

4. It is insoluble in water, but forms with it a ductile paste.

5. It is soluble in liquid potash and soda, but not in the solution of pure ammonia. In these respects it agrees with alumine.

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6. It is soluble in carbonate of ammonia.
7. It appears, like alumine, to have an affinity for colouring matter.
8. With the different acids it forms combinations, which have a sweet and rather astringent taste. Hence its name has been derived from *γλυκός*, signifying sweet.

SECT. IX.

Yttria, or Ittria.

1. This earth was discovered in 1794, by Professor Gadolin, in a stone from Ytterby in Sweden, and its title to the character of a peculiar earth rests, also, on the unquestionable authority of Klaproth and Vauquelin, both of whom have made it the subject of experiment. The following process for obtaining it, is described by Vauquelin in the 30th volume of the *Annales de Chimie* :

Fuse the pulverized stone, in the manner already described, with twice its weight of potash ; wash the mass with boiling distilled water, and filter. The filtered solution, which has a beautiful green colour, yields, during evaporation, a black precipitate of oxide of manganese. When this has ceased to appear, allow the liquor to stand ; decant the clear part, and saturate with nitric acid. Let the insoluble part be, also, digested with extremely dilute nitric acid, which will take up the soluble earths only, and will leave undissolved, the silex and oxide of iron. Let the two portions be mingled together, and evaporate to dryness ; then re-dissolved and filtered ; by which means any remains of silex and oxide of iron are separated. To obtain the yttria from the nitric solution, it would be sufficient, if no other earth were present, to precipitate it by carbonate of ammonia ; but small portions of lime, and of oxide of manganese, are still present along with it. The first is separated by a few drops of carbonate of potash ; and the manganese, by the cautious addition of hydro-sulphuret of potash. The yttria is then to be precipitated by pure ammonia, washed abundantly with water, and dried. It amounts to about 35 *per cent.* of the stone.

II. Yttria has the following properties:

1. It is perfectly white; but it is difficult to preserve it free from a slight tinge of colour, owing to its contamination with oxide of manganese.

2. It has neither taste nor smell; and it is smooth to the touch, like alumine.

3. It is insoluble in water, and infusible by heat.

4. It is very ponderous; its specific gravity being 4.842.

5. It is not attacked by pure alkalis; and, in this respect, it differs from glucine and alumine, both which are abundantly soluble in fixed alkalis.

6. Like glucine, it is soluble in carbonate of ammonia, but five or six times less so than that earth; or, in other words, of equal quantities of glucine and yttria, the latter requires for solution five or six times more of the carbonate of ammonia than the former.

7. It is soluble in most acids; and is precipitated by pure alkalis, by barytes, and by lime.

8. From these solutions it is also precipitated by the oxalic acid, and by oxalate of ammonia, in a state resembling precipitated muriate of silver. Prussiate of potash throws it down in white small grains; phosphate of soda in a white gelatinous form; and infusion of galls in brown flocculi.

CHAP. IX.

ACIDS IN GENERAL.

ACIDS in general have the following properties:

(a) *They redden vegetable blue colours.* (N. 15.) Hence blue vegetable infusions, and the papers stained with them, are tests of the presence of acids. To a little of the infusion of litmus add a drop of dilute sulphuric, or any other acid: The colour will immediately change to red.

(b) They have a peculiar *taste*, expressed by the term acid, or sour.

(c) *They combine chemically with alkalis, and totally destroy the peculiar properties of those bodies.* Let a few ounce-measures of water be tinged blue with genuine sirup of violets: Add some solution of pure potash, and the colour will become green. Then gradually drop in sulphuric acid, much diluted; and, if this be done very cautiously, the blue colour will be restored. In this state, neither the alkali nor the acid is in excess; or, in other words, they are exactly *saturated* by each other. One of the most remarkable properties of the alkali and the acid, when separate, disappears, therefore, on combination. And, on further examination, it will be found that all the other characteristics of the components are lost in the compound.

CHAP. X.

CARBON.—CARBONIC ACID.—CARBONATES.—BINARY
COMPOUNDS OF CARBON.

SECT. I.

Carbon and Charcoal. (N. 16.)

1. THE only form of absolute purity in which carbon is presented to us, is that of the diamond, which has been proved, by recent experiments, to be pure carbon in a crystallized state. Charcoal, however, though far from being pure carbon, is yet sufficiently so for the purpose of exhibiting its combination with oxygen. To obtain it free from contamination, pieces of oak, willow, hazle, or other woods, deprived of the bark, must be buried in sand in a crucible, which is to be exposed, covered, to the strongest heat of a wind-furnace. For purposes to which charcoal is applied in a powdered state, it may be purified,

by washing it when pulverized, with diluted muriatic acid, and afterwards with a considerable quantity of distilled water.

II. Charcoal has the following properties :

1. In its aggregated state it is black, perfectly insipid, and free from smell ; brittle, and easily pulverized.

2. Charcoal has the singular property of absorbing gases, without alteration. Fill a jar with common air, or any other gas, and place it over dry mercury : Take a piece of charcoal, red-hot from the fire, and plunge it in the mercury of the bath : When cold, let it be passed into the vessel of gas, without bringing it into contact with the atmosphere. A considerable diminution of the gas will be speedily effected.

3. From the experiments of Rouppe (*Annales de Chimie*, XXXII. 1.,) it appears, that if charcoal, which has imbibed oxygen gas, be brought into contact with hydrogen gas, water is generated.

4. Charcoal, by long exposure to the atmosphere, absorbs one-twentieth of its weight, three-fourths of which are water.

5. Charcoal resists the putrefaction of animal substances. A piece of flesh-meat, which has begun to be tainted, may have its sweetness restored by rubbing it daily with powdered charcoal ; and may be preserved sweet for some time by burying it in powdered charcoal, which is to be renewed daily. Putrid water is also restored by the application of the same substance ; and water may be kept unchanged at sea, by charring the inner surface of the casks which are used to contain it.

6. Charcoal is a very slow conductor of caloric. The experiments of Guyton have determined, that caloric is conveyed through charcoal more slowly than through sand, in the proportion of three to two. Hence powdered charcoal may be advantageously employed to surround substances which are to be kept cool in a warm atmosphere ; and also to confine the caloric of heated bodies.

SECT. II.

Combustion of Carbon, and of Charcoal.

1. In order to effect the combustion of the diamond, it is necessary to keep it exposed, for a considerable time, to the focus of a powerful burning lens, and in a vessel filled with oxygen gas. This experiment requires a complicated apparatus, which is described and represented by a plate in the 31st volume of the *Annales de Chimie*, or the 5th of the *Philosophical Magazine*. Under these circumstances, the diamond does not exhibit the appearance of an active inflammation, but is slowly and almost insensibly consumed, its outer surface first becoming black. The temperature, estimated to be required for its combustion, is about 30° of Wedgwood, or nearly 5000° Fahrenheit.

2. If a piece of charcoal be introduced cold into oxygen gas, no effect will ensue ; but if the charcoal be previously made red-hot, it burns in this gas with considerable brilliancy. To perform this experiment with accuracy, and with the proper attention to the products, it should be made over mercury. The oxygen will unite with the carbon ; and the product is a compound of carbon and oxygen, which subsists over mercury in the state of gas. On this account, no diminution ensues.

3. Another mode of effecting the combination of carbon with oxygen, is by driving the vapour of water over red-hot charcoal, in the apparatus fig. 40. The water is decomposed ; its oxygen combines with the carbon ; while its hydrogen combines with another portion of carbon, and forms a compound, which will be hereafter described.

The union of carbon with oxygen, whatsoever may be the source of the latter, affords carbonic acid. .

SECT. III.

Carbonic Acid.

L The oxygen gas which has been employed for the combustion of the diamond, or of charcoal, is found, on examination, to have undergone a remarkable change. The volume of the gas remains unaltered; but it has lost entirely its property of supporting combustion; extinguishes all burning bodies that are immersed in it; and exhibits other new properties, which will presently be stated. It is, in fact, a combination of carbon or diamond with oxygen, in the proportion of 17.88 of the former to 82.12 of the latter: and, having acid qualities, this compound is termed carbonic acid.

When 100 parts of charcoal are thus burned, they combine with 252 by weight of oxygen, and give 352 of carbonic acid. Hence it follows, that 100 parts of carbonic acid contain 28 of charcoal. The latest experiments of Lavoisier, however, make the proportion only 24 *per cent.* (*Annales de Chimie*, XLII. 288.).

From a comparison of these two experiments, it appears that 17.88 parts of diamond, and 24 of charcoal, yield by combustion the same quantity of carbonic acid; and, hence, must be equivalent to precisely the same quantity of actual carbon. The difference between the two numbers (6.12), shews the quantity of oxygen which 24 parts of charcoal contain: And, since 24 parts contain 6.12, 100 parts of charcoal, must be composed of

$$\begin{array}{r} 74.5 \text{ carbon,} \\ 25.5 \text{ oxygen,} \\ \hline 100. \end{array}$$

These proportions, I am well aware, differ considerably from those assigned by Dr. Thomson (*Chemistry*, I. 55.). The difference arises from his assuming, with Guyton, the proportion of charcoal in carbonic acid to be 28 instead of 24 *per cent.*

II. To procure carbonic acid, sufficiently pure for the exhibition of its properties, neither of the above processes

of combustion is advisable. The student may, therefore, have recourse to another, the rationale of which he will not, at present, understand ; but which will be explained afterwards. Into a common gas-bottle, put a little powdered marble or chalk, and pour on this sulphuric acid, diluted with five or six times its weight of water. A gas will be produced, which those, who have an opportunity, may receive over mercury ; but a mercurial apparatus is not absolutely essential, since the gas may be collected over water, if used immediately when procured. Its properties are the following :

(a) *It extinguishes flame.*—Set a vessel, filled with the gas, with its mouth upwards, and let down a lighted candle. The candle will instantly be extinguished.

A person, says Dr. Priestley, who is quite a stranger to the properties of this kind of gas, will be agreeably amused with extinguishing lighted candles, or blazing chips of wood, on its surface. For the smoke readily unites with this kind of air ; so that little or none of it escapes into the atmosphere. It is remarkable, that the upper surface of this smoke, floating in the fixed air, is smooth and well defined ; whereas the lower surface is exceedingly ragged, several parts hanging down to a considerable distance within the body of the carbonic acid, and sometimes in the form of balls, connected to the upper stratum by slender threads, as if they were suspended. The smoke is also apt to form itself into broad flakes, exactly like clouds. Making an agitation in this air, the surface of it (which still continues exactly defined) is thrown into the form of waves ; and if, by this agitation, any of the carbonic acid be thrown over the sides of the vessel, the smoke, which is mixed with it, will fall to the ground, as if it was so much water.

(b) *It is fatal to animals.*—Put a mouse, or other small animal, into a vessel of the gas, and cover the vessel, to prevent the contact of common air. The animal will die in the course of a minute or two.

By means of this gas, butterflies, and other insects, the colours of which it is desirable to preserve, for the purpose of cabinet specimens, may be suffocated better than by the common mode of killing them with the fumes of sulphur.

(c) *This gas is heavier than common air.*—Let a long glass-tube, proceeding from a gas-bottle containing the materials (No. 1.), be twice bent at right angles : Let the open end of the longer leg reach the bottom of a glass-jar, perfectly dry within, and standing with its mouth uppermost. The carbonic acid will expel the common air from the jar, because it is heavier.—This superior gravity may be further shewn as follows : When the jar is perfectly filled with the gas, (which may be known by a lighted candle being instantly extinguished when let down into it), take another jar, of rather smaller size, and place at the bottom of it a lighted taper, supported by a stand : Then pour the contents of the first-mentioned jar into the second, as if you were pouring in water. The candle will be instantly extinguished, as effectually as if it had been immersed in water.

It is owing to its superior gravity, that carbonic acid gas is often found at the bottom of deep wells and of mines, the upper part of which is entirely free from it. Hence the precaution, used by the sinkers of wells, of letting down a candle before they venture to descend in person.

(d) *Carbonic acid gas is absorbed by water.*—Fill partly a jar with this gas, and let it stand a few hours over water. An absorption will gradually go on, till at last none will remain. This absorption is infinitely quicker when agitation is used. Repeat the above experiment, with this difference, that the jar must be shaken strongly. A very rapid diminution will now take place. In this manner water may be charged with nearly its own bulk of carbonic acid gas ; and it acquires, when thus saturated, a very brisk and pleasant taste. This impregnation is most commodiously effected by an apparatus, sold in the glass-shops, under the name of Nooth's machine.

(e) *From water, thus impregnated, carbonic acid is again set at liberty, on boiling the water, or by exposing it under the receiver of an air-pump.*—During exhaustion, the gas will escape so rapidly, as to present the appearance of ebullition ; and will be much more remarkable than the discharge of air from a jar full of common spring water, confined, at the same time, under the receiver, as a standard of comparison.

markably, if oxygen gas be substituted for common air. The carbonic acid, thus formed during combustion, by its admixture with the residuary air, renders it unfit for supporting flame, sooner than it otherwise would be. Hence, if a candle be burnt in oxygen gas, it is extinguished long before the oxygen is totally absorbed, because the admixture of carbonic acid with oxygen gas, in considerable proportion, unfits it for supporting combustion. Whenever any substance, by combustion in oxygen gas or common air over lime water, gives a precipitate, soluble with effervescence in muriatic acid, we may confidently infer that it contains carbon.

(*k*) *The respiration of animals is another source of carbonic acid.*—On confining an animal, in a given portion of atmospheric air, over lime water, this production of carbonic acid is evinced by a precipitation. The same effect is also produced more remarkably in oxygen gas. The production of carbonic acid, by respiration, may be proved, also, by blowing the air from the lungs, with the aid of a quill, through lime water, which will immediately grow milky. The carbonic acid, thus added to the air, unfits it for supporting life, not merely by diminishing the proportion of oxygen gas, but apparently by exerting a positively noxious effect. Hence a given quantity of air will support an animal much longer, when the carbonic acid is removed as fast as it is formed, than when suffered to remain in a state of mixture. It has been found, that an atmosphere, consisting of oxygen gas and carbonic acid, is fatal to animals, though it contains a larger proportion of oxygen than the air we commonly breathe.

(*l*) Carbonic acid retards the putrefaction of animal substances. This may be proved, by suspending two equal pieces of flesh-meat, the one in common air, the other in carbonic acid gas, or in a vessel through which a stream of carbonic acid is constantly passing. The latter will be preserved untainted some time after the other has begun to putrefy.

(*m*) *Carbonic acid gas exerts powerful effects on living vegetables.*—These effects, however, vary according to the mode of its application.

Water, saturated with this gas, proves highly nutritive, when applied to the roots of plants. The carbonic acid is decomposed, its carbon forming a component part of

the vegetable, and its oxygen being liberated in a gaseous form.

On the contrary, carbonic acid, applied as an atmosphere, by confining a living vegetable in the undiluted gas over water, is injurious to the health of the plant, especially in the shade. M. Saussure *jun.* found, that a proportion of carbonic acid in common air, greater than one-eighth, is always injurious to vegetation; but that in this proportion it promotes the growth of plants, and is manifestly decomposed.

III. Carbonic acid is susceptible of combination with alkalis, earths, and metals, and forms an order of compounds, termed carbonates. At present, however, we shall only attend to the results of its union with alkalis.

SECT. IV.

Carbonates.

ART. I.—*Carbonate of Potash.*

(a) *Carbonic acid gas is very abundantly absorbed by a solution of pure potash.* The simplest mode of showing this fact is the following: Fill a common phial with carbonic acid gas over water; and, when full, stop it by applying the thumb. Then invert the bottle in a solution of pure potash, contained in a cup, and rather more in quantity than is sufficient to fill the bottle. The solution will rise into the bottle, and, if the gas be pure, will fill it entirely. Pour out the alkaline liquor, fill the bottle with water, and again displace it by the gas. Proceed as before, and repeat the process several times. It will be found that the solution will condense many times its bulk of the gas; whereas water combines only with its own volume.

This experiment may be made, in a much more striking manner, over mercury, by passing into a jar, about three-fourths filled with this gas, a comparatively small bulk of a solution of pure potash, which will condense the whole of the gas. If dry potash be substituted in this experiment, no change will ensue; which proves, that solution is essential to the action of alkalis on this gas.

(b.) *The changes effected in the alkali may next be examined.*—It will be found to have lost much of its corrosive and penetrating taste, and will no longer destroy the texture of woollen cloth ; but it still turns to green the blue infusion of vegetables. Before its absorption of this gas, no remarkable change ensued on mixing it with diluted sulphuric acid ; but if this, or any other acid, be now added, a violent effervescence will ensue, arising from the escape of the gas that had been previously absorbed. If the mixture be made in a gas-bottle, the gas, that is evolved, may be collected, and will be found to exhibit every character of carbonic acid.

(c.) In this state of sub-saturation with carbonic acid, potash generally occurs in the arts. The potash and pearlash of commerce, and the salt of tartar, and salt of wormwood of the shops, are sub-carbonates of potash, of different degrees of purity. The quantity of carbonic acid, contained in these alkalis, may be learned by a very simple experiment. Put one or two hundred grains of the alkali into a Florence flask, and add a few ounce-measures of water. Take also a phial filled with dilute sulphuric acid, and place this, as well as the flask, in one scale. Balance the two, by putting weights into the opposite scale ; and, when the equilibrium is attained, pour gradually the acid into the flask of alkali, till an effervescence no longer ensues. When this has ceased, the scale containing the weights will be found to preponderate. This shows that the alkali, by combination with an acid, loses considerably of its weight ; and the exact amount of the loss may be ascertained, by adding weights to the scale containing the flask and phial, till the balance is restored.

(d.) As it is sometimes of importance to know what proportion of real alkali a given weight of potash or pearlash contains, it may be proper to point out how this information may be acquired. The strength of the alkali is in proportion to the quantity of any acid required to saturate it. Thus, if an ounce of one kind of potash requires, for saturation, a given quantity of sulphuric acid, and an ounce of another kind requires twice that quantity, the latter is twice as strong as the former. In order, however, to obtain a sufficiently accurate standard of comparison, it will be necessary to employ, constantly, an acid

of the same strength. This may be effected, though not with absolute uniformity, yet sufficient for ordinary purposes, by diluting the common oil-of-vitriol of commerce to the same degree. For example, let the standard acid consist of one part of sulphuric acid and five of water. The strength of an alkali will be learned, by observing what quantity of this acid a given quantity of alkali requires for saturation. For this purpose, put half an ounce of the alkali, or any other definite weight, into a jar with a few ounces of water, and filtre the solution: weigh the dilute acid employed, before adding it to the alkali; then pour it in gradually, till the effervescence ceases, and till the colour of litmus-paper, which has been reddened with vinegar, ceases to be restored to blue. When this happens, the point of saturation will be attained. Weigh the bottle, to ascertain how much acid has been added, and the loss of weight will indicate the strength of the alkali. Another less accurate mode of determining the strength is founded on the following property of carbonate of potash.

(e.) *Sub-carbonate of potash dissolves very readily in water, which, at the ordinary temperature, takes up more than its own weight.*—Hence, when an alkali, which should consist almost entirely of sub-carbonate of potash, is adulterated, as very often happens, with substances of little solubility, the fraud may be detected by trying how much of one ounce will dissolve in two or three ounce-measures of water. In this way I have detected an adulteration of one-third. There are certain substances of ready solubility, however, which may be used in adulterating ashes, as common salt for example; and, when this is done, we must have recourse to the above-mentioned test for the means of discovery.

(f.) Sub-carbonate of potash, when exposed to the atmosphere, attracts so much moisture, as to pass to a liquid state. This change is termed *deliquescence*.

(g.) When submitted, in a crucible, to a high temperature, a part only of its carbonic acid is expelled. The alkali runs into fusion, and the fused mass still effervesces on the addition of an acid.

(h.) Carbonate of potash, in the states which have been already described, is far from being completely saturated with acid. This sufficiently appears from its strongly al-

kaline taste. It may be much more highly charged with carbonic acid, by exposing its solution to streams of carbonic acid gas, in a Nouth's machine, or other apparatus. When a solution of alkali, after this treatment, is slowly evaporated, it forms regular crystals. In this state the alkali constitutes the crystallized carbonate of potash, which contains, per cent. 40 parts of potash, 43 of acid, and 17 of water. It has therefore a much larger proportion of water and of acid than the common carbonate, 100 parts of which are composed of 70 parts of alkali, 23 of acid, and 5 of water.

(i) The CARBONATE OF POTASH differs from the sub-carbonate in the following particulars.

1. In the greater mildness of its taste. It may be applied to the tongue, or taken into the stomach, without exciting any of that burning sensation which is occasioned by the sub-carbonate.

2. It is unchanged by exposure to the atmosphere.

3. It assumes the shape of regular crystals. The form of these crystals is a four-sided prism, with dihedral triangular summits, the facets of which correspond with the solid angles of the prism.

4. It requires, for solution, four times its weight of water at 60°. Boiling water dissolves 5-6ths of its weight; but, during this solution, the salt is partly decomposed, as is manifested by the escape of carbonic acid gas.

5. By calcination in a low red-heat, the portion of carbonic acid, which imparts to this salt its characteristic properties, is expelled, and the salt returns to the state of a sub-carbonate.

(k) Carbonate of potash, in all its forms, is decomposed by the stronger acids; as the sulphuric, nitric, and muriatic, which unite with the alkali, and set the gas at liberty.

This may be shewn by pouring, on the carbonate contained in a gas bottle, any of the acids, and collecting the gas by a proper apparatus.

The carbonate of soda is known in commerce by the names of barilla, kelp, fossil or mineral alkali, &c.; but as applied to the uses of the arts, it is never met with pure.

ART. II.—*Carbonate of Soda.* (N. 17.)

(a) The absorption of carbonic acid gas, by a solution of pure soda, may be exhibited by experiments similar to those directed to be made on the solution of potash. Indeed, every thing that has been said of the preceding carbonate will apply to this; except that the carbonate of soda has a less strong affinity for water. Hence it continues dry, when exposed to the atmosphere, and even gives up a part of its water of crystallization, the crystals losing their transparency and something of their weight. Hence, also, it requires a greater quantity of water for solution, than common carbonate of potash, water taking up only half its weight. The crystals, too, differ considerably in form and size from those of the former carbonate, being decahedrons, which are composed of two four-sided pyramids, applied base to base, and having their apices truncated. They frequently, also, present large transparent flat rhomboidal prisms. Water, of the temperature of 60° , takes up half its weight; and boiling water rather more than its own weight. In 100 parts, this salt contains, according to Bergman, 16 carbonic acid, 20 soda, and 64 water.

ART. III.—*Carbonate of Ammonia.*

(a) Ammonia, in its pure state, exists in the form of a gas, permanent over mercury only; and carbonic acid has, also, the form of an aërial fluid. But, when these two gases are mixed together over mercury in proper proportions, (viz. one measure of carbonic acid to two or three of alkaline gas) they both quit the state of gas, and are entirely condensed into a white solid body, termed carbonate of ammonia.

Those persons who are not possessed of a mercurial trough, may compose the carbonate of ammonia in the following manner. Provide a globular receiver, having two open necks opposite each other. Into one of these introduce the neck of a retort, containing carbonate of lime and dilute sulphuric acid, from which a constant

stream of carbonic acid will issue. The inner surface of the globe will remain perfectly unclouded. Into the opposite opening, let the mouth of a retort be introduced, containing the materials for ammoniacal gas. (Chap. VII. Sect. 2.). The inner surface of the globe will now be covered with a dense crust of carbonate of ammonia.

The carbonate of ammonia may also be formed, by passing, into a jar 3-4ths filled with carbonic acid over mercury, a solution of pure ammonia, which will instantly effect an absorption of the gas. The ordinary mode of producing it for useful purposes will be described hereafter.

(b.) Carbonate of ammonia retains, in a considerable degree, the pungent smell of the pure volatile alkali. It is, also, unlike the other carbonates, volatilized by a very moderate heat, and evaporates without entering previously into a liquid state. The vapour that arises may be again condensed in a solid state; affording an example of *sublimation*. This may be shewn, by applying heat to the carbonate of ammonia in a retort, to which a receiver is adapted. The carbonate will rise, and be condensed in the receiver in the form of a white crust.

(c.) This carbonate does not attract moisture from the air, but, on the contrary, loses weight.

(d.) Carbonate of ammonia, like those of potash and soda, converts vegetable blue colours to green, as the pure alkalis do.

(e.) It is soluble in rather less than twice its weight of cold water, or in an equal weight of boiling water. At the latter temperature, however, it is partly decomposed, and a violent effervescence ensues.

(f.) In composition it varies considerably, according to the temperature in which it has been formed. Thus, carbonate of ammonia, which has been produced in a temperature of 300° Fahrenheit, contains 50 per cent. of alkali; while carbonate formed at 60° contains only 20 per cent.

(g.) It is decomposed by pure potash and pure soda; and by the sub-carbonates of those alkalis, which attract its carbonic acid, and expel the alkali. Hence it has been recommended, by Berthollet, to employ this salt for the full saturation of potash with carbonic acid, w^h may be accomplished by the following process.

To a filtered solution of four pounds of pearl-ash in four quarts of water, add two pounds of carbonate of ammonia, reduced to powder; and stir the mixture at intervals, till the carbonate of ammonia is entirely dissolved. Filter the liquor, and put it into a retort, which may be set in a sand-bath, and be connected with a receiver. A very gentle heat is to be applied; so as to distil off about half a pint of the liquor, which will consist of a solution of carbonate of ammonia in water. The liquor in the retort may either be allowed to cool in it, or be transferred into a flat evaporating dish of Wedgwood's ware. When cold, crystals of the carbonate of potash will probably be formed; otherwise another portion must be distilled off, and this must be repeated till the crystals appear; separate the first crystals that are formed; and, on repeating the distillation and cooling, fresh sets will appear in succession. A considerable portion of the solution, however, will refuse to crystallize. This may be boiled to dryness, and applied to the purposes of sub-carbonate of potash. The crystals of carbonate of potash may be washed with a small quantity of cold water, and dried on blotting paper; or, if they are required of great purity, they may be dissolved in cold water, and re-crystallized, using the gentlest heat possible in evaporating the solution.

ART. IV.—*Carbonate of Barytes.*

I. Pure barytes has a very powerful affinity for carbonic acid.

1. Let a solution of pure barytes be exposed to the atmosphere. It will soon be covered with a thin white pellicle; which, when broken, will fall to the bottom of the vessel, and be succeeded by another. This may be continued, till the whole of the barytes is separated. The effect arises from the absorption of carbonic acid, which is always diffused through the atmosphere, and which forms with barytes a substance, viz. carbonate of barytes, much less soluble than the pure earth.

2. Blow the air from the lungs, by means of a quill, a tobacco pipe, or glass tube, through a solution of barytes. The solution will immediately become milky, for the same reason as before.

3. With a solution of pure barytes, mingle a little water,

impregnated with carbonic acid. An immediate precipitation of carbonate of barytes will ensue.

4. Barytes has so strong an affinity for carbonic acid, as even to take it from other bodies. To a solution of a small portion of carbonate of potash, of soda, or of ammonia, add the solution of barytes. The barytes will separate the carbonic acid from the alkali, and will fall down in the state of a carbonate. By adding a sufficient quantity of a solution of barytes in hot water, the whole of the carbonic acid may thus be taken from a carbonated alkali; and the alkali will remain perfectly pure.

II.—1. Carbonate of barytes is nearly insoluble in water, which, at 60° , does not take up more than $\frac{1}{4388}$ part, or, when boiling, about $\frac{1}{1388}$. Water impregnated with carbonic acid dissolves a considerably larger proportion.

2. Carbonate of barytes is perfectly tasteless, and does not alter vegetable blue colours. It acts as a violent poison.

3. The combination of carbonic acid with barytes may either be formed artificially, as in the manner already described, and by other processes, to be detailed in the sequel, in which case it is termed, the *artificial carbonate*: Or it may be procured, ready formed, from the earth, and is then called the *native carbonate*. It is not, however, a very common production of nature. The largest quantity, hitherto discovered, is in a mine, now no longer worked, at Anglezark, near Chorley in Lancashire.

4. The native and artificial carbonates differ in the proportion of their components. The former contains, in 100 parts, 20 acid and 80 barytes. The artificial, according to Pelletier, consists of 22 acid, 62 earth, and 16 water.

5. Carbonate of barytes is decomposed by an intense heat; its carbonic acid being expelled; and the barytes remaining pure. The artificial carbonate is most readily decomposed; but the native one is generally employed for obtaining pure barytes, because it may be had in considerable quantity. The process, which I have found to answer best, is nearly that of Pelletier. Let the native carbonate be powdered, and passed through a fine sieve. Work it up with about an equal bulk of wheaten flour into a ball, adding a sufficient quantity of water. Fill a crucible of proper size, about one-third its height, with

powdered charcoal; place the ball on this; and surround and cover it with the same powder, so as to prevent its coming into contact with the sides of the crucible. Lute on a cover; and expose it for two hours, to the most violent heat that can be raised in a wind furnace. Let the ball be removed when cold. On the addition of water, it will evolve great heat, as already described (Ch. VIII.) and the barytes will be dissolved. The filtered solution, on cooling, will shoot into beautiful crystals.

6. Carbonate of barytes is decomposed by the sulphuric, nitric, muriatic, and various other acids, which detach the carbonic acid, and combine with the earth.

ART. V.—*Carbonate of Strontites.*

The relation of strontites to carbonic acid resembles, very closely, that of barytes; and all the experiments, directed to be made with the solution of the latter earth, may be repeated with that of strontites, which will exhibit similar appearances.

The carbonate of strontites requires for solution 1,536 parts of boiling water. It is found native at Strontian in Argyleshire; and may, also, be prepared by artificial processes, which will be afterwards described. From this carbonate pure strontites may be prepared, by treating it in the same manner as was directed for the calcination of carbonate of barytes.

ART. VI.—*Carbonate of Lime.*

I. Lime has a strong attraction for *carbonic acid*, but not when perfectly dry.

(a.) If a piece of dry quicklime be passed into a jar of carbonic acid gas over mercury, no absorption ensues. But invert a bottle, filled with carbonic acid gas, over a mixture of lime and water of the consistence of cream, and a rapid absorption will be observed, especially if the bottle be agitated.

(b.) Let a jar or bottle, filled with carbonic acid, be brought over a vessel of lime-water. On agitating the

vessel, a rapid diminution will ensue, and the lime-water will become milky.

(c.) Leave a shallow vessel of lime-water exposed to the air. A white crust will form on the surface, and this, if broken, will fall to the bottom, and be succeeded by another. This is owing to the absorption of carbonic acid gas from the air by the lime, which is thus rendered insoluble in water.

(d.) Lime, when exposed to the atmosphere, first acquires moisture, and then carbonic acid; and, in a sufficient space of time, all the characters distinguishing it as lime disappear.

(e.) Lime has an extremely strong affinity for carbonic acid, which enables it to take this acid from other substances. Thus carbonates of alkalis are decomposed by lime. Slake a given quantity of lime into a paste with water, and add half its weight of carbonate of potash or soda. Boil the mixture, for half an hour, in an iron kettle, and separate the liquid part by filtration or by subsidence. The carbonic acid combines with the lime, and the alkali is obtained in a state of solution perfectly free from carbonic acid. This is the ordinary mode of depriving the alkalis of carbonic acid.

(f.) Lime, when saturated with carbonic acid, forms carbonate of lime. Of this, common chalk may be taken as a fair sample; and in all saturated carbonates of this earth, we find the characters of insipidity and insolubility in water. Calcareous spar, marble, stalactites, lime-stone, and chalk, are all varieties of carbonate of lime.

(g.) Carbonate of lime is decomposed by a strong heat. If distilled in an earthen retort, carbonic acid gas is obtained, and lime remains in the retort in a pure or caustic state. By this process it loses about 50 per cent.

(h.) It is also decomposed by the stronger acids. Put some chalk into a gas bottle, and pour on it diluted sulphuric acid. The sulphuric acid will unite with the lime, and the carbonic acid will be set at liberty.

By a comparison of this experiment with the preceding one (g.) we may learn the proportion of carbonic acid and water contained in any carbonate of lime. Let 100 grains of the carbonate be put into a Florence flask, with an ounce or two of water; place this in the scale of a balance; and in the same scale, but in a separate bottle, about half an

ounce of muriatic acid. Add the muriatic acid to the carbonate as long as any effervescence is produced, and then blow out the disengaged carbonic acid, which remains in the flask, by a pair of bellows. Ascertain, by adding weights to the opposite scale, how much has been lost; suppose it to be thirty-five grains; this shews the quantity of carbonic acid disengaged. Calcine another 100 grains in a covered crucible. It will lose still more of its weight; because, besides its carbonic acid, all the water is expelled which it may contain. Let this loss be stated at 50 grains; the former loss deducted from this (50-35,) or 15 grains, shows the quantity of water in 100 of the carbonate.

(i.) Carbonate of lime, though scarcely dissolved by pure water, is soluble in water saturated with carbonic acid. The most striking method of showing this is the following: Add to a jar, about one-fourth filled with lime water, a very small quantity of water saturated with carbonic acid. An immediate milkiness will ensue, because the carbonic acid forms with the lime an insoluble carbonate. Add gradually more of the water, impregnated with carbonic acid, shaking the jar as these additions are made. At last the precipitate is re-dissolved. Hence it appears that lime, with a certain proportion of carbonic acid, is insoluble, and, with a still larger, again becomes soluble in water.

(k.) The carbonate of lime, dissolved by an excess of carbonic acid, (i.) is again separated, when this excess is driven off. Thus boiling, which expels the superabundant acid, precipitates the carbonate. Caustic, or pure alkalis, also produce a similar effect.

ART. VII.—*Carbonate of Magnesia.*

I. Pure magnesia does not attract carbonic acid with nearly the same intensity as lime. Hence magnesia may be exposed, for a long time, to the air, without any important change in its properties, or much increase of weight. The carbonate of magnesia, used in medicine, and for experimental purposes, is prepared by a process to be described in the sequel. In this state, however, it

is not entirely saturated with carbonic acid, and is rather a sub-carbonate.

II. The saturated carbonate may be obtained, by passing streams of carbonic acid gas through water, in which the sub-carbonate is kept mechanically suspended. The solution yields, when evaporated, small crystals, which are transparent hexagonal prisms, terminated by hexagonal planes. These crystals have no taste, and are soluble in 48 parts of cold water; whereas the sub-carbonate requires at least ten times that quantity. The crystallized carbonate contains per cent. 50 acid, 25 earth, and 25 water; the sub-carbonate 34 acid, 45 earth, and 21 water.

III. The carbonate of magnesia is decomposed by the same agents as the carbonate of lime. It yields its carbonic acid, however, in a much more moderate heat.

IV. Lime has a stronger affinity than magnesia for carbonic acid. Hence, if lime-water be digested with carbonate of magnesia, the lime is precipitated in the state of an insoluble carbonate.

ART. VIII.—*Carbonate of Glucine.*

I. Glucine appears to have a considerable affinity for carbonic acid; for, when precipitated from acids by pure alkalis, and dried in the air, it becomes effervescent. The carbonate of glucine is white, insipid, insoluble, and very light. It contains about one-fourth its weight of carbonic acid, which it loses by exposure to a low red-heat.

The carbonate of silex does not exist, and those of zircon, alumine, and yttria, have no peculiarly interesting properties.

SECT. V.

Gaseous Oxide of Carbon, or Carbonic Oxide.

This combination of carbon, with oxygen contains a less proportion of oxygen than is found in carbonic acid. Its discovery was announced in Nicholson's Journal, for April 1801, by Mr. Cruickshank, and in the 38th vol. of

the *Annales de Chimie*, through Cit. Guyton, by Clement and Desormes, whose experiments are continued in the 39th vol. p. 26. The Dutch chemists, however, in vol. 43, object to its being considered as a distinct gas, and regard it merely as a carburet of hydrogen. But their objections do not appear sufficiently strong to prevent the acknowledgment of the gaseous oxide as a new and peculiar species.

I. It may be procured by any of the following processes :

1. By the distillation of the white oxide of zinc with 1-8th its weight of charcoal, in an earthen or glass retort ; from the scales which fly from iron in forging, mixed with a similar proportion of charcoal ; from the oxides of lead, manganese, or, indeed, of almost every imperfect metal, when heated in contact with powdered charcoal. It may also be obtained from the substance which remains after preparing acetic acid from acetate of copper.

2. From well dried carbonate of barytes or of lime (common chalk), distilled with about 1-5th of charcoal ; or with rather a larger proportion of dry iron or zinc filings, which afford it quite free from hydrogen.

3. By transmitting carbonic acid gas over charcoal ignited in a porcelain tube. The acid gas combines with an additional dose of charcoal ; loses its acid properties ; and is converted into the carbonic oxide. An ingenious apparatus, contrived by M. Baruel, and extremely useful for this and similar purposes, is described, and represented by a plate, in the 11th volume of Nicholson's Journal.

The last product of the distillation is the purest, but still contains carbonic acid, which must be separated by washing the gas with lime liquor.

II. Its properties are as follow :

(a.) It has an offensive smell.

(b.) It is lighter than common air, in the proportion of 966 to 1000. One hundred cubical inches weigh 30 grains.

(c.) It is inflammable, and, when set fire to, as it issues from the orifice of a small pipe, burns with a blue flame. When mixed with common air, it does not explode like other inflammable gases, but burns silently with a lam-

bent blue flame. It detonates, however, with oxygen gas.

(d.) When a stream of this gas is burnt, in the manner described in speaking of hydrogen gas, no water is condensed on the inner surface of the glass globe, a proof that the gaseous oxide contains no hydrogen.

(e.) It is sparingly soluble in water; is not absorbed by liquid caustic alkalis; nor does it precipitate lime-water.

(f.) It is extremely noxious to animals; and fatal to them if confined in it. When respired for a few minutes, it produces giddiness and fainting.

(g.) When 100 measures of carbonic oxide are fired over mercury in a detonating tube, with 45 of oxygen gas, the total 145 are diminished to 90, which consist entirely of carbonic acid.

(h.) It is not expanded by electric shocks.

(i.) When the carbonic oxide, mingled with an equal bulk of hydrogen gas, is passed through an ignited tube, the tube becomes lined with charcoal. In this temperature, the hydrogen attracts oxygen more strongly than it is retained by the charcoal, and forms water.

According to Mr. Cruikshank, it contains, per cent. about 70 oxygen, and 30 carbon; or the former is to the latter as 21 to 8.6, or as 21 to 9.

SECT. VI.

Combination of Carbon with Hydrogen, forming Carburetted Hydrogen Gas, or Hydro-Carburet.

I. Of this combination there are several distinct varieties, consisting of carbon and hydrogen, united in various proportions, and obtained by different processes.

1. When the vapour of water is brought into contact with red-hot charcoal (by means of an apparatus similar to that represented fig. 40.) two different products are obtained. The oxygen of the water, uniting with the carbon, constitutes carbonic acid; and the hydrogen of the water dissolving, at the moment of its liberation, a portion of charcoal, composes carburetted hydrogen

gas.* The carbonic acid may be separated from the hydro-carburet, by agitating the gas, which has been produced, in contact with lime and water, mixed together, so as to be of the consistence of cream.

2. By stirring, with a stick, the mud that is deposited at the bottom of ditches or stagnant pools, bubbles of gas ascend to the surface, and may be collected in an inverted bottle of water, to the mouth of which a funnel, also inverted, is fixed.

3. By submitting coal (N. 18.) to distillation, in an iron or coated glass retort, a large quantity of gas, besides a portion of tar, is produced. The latter may be received in an intermediate vessel; and the gas must be well washed with lime liquor.

4. Let a porcelain tube, coated with clay, be fixed horizontally in a furnace, in the manner represented fig. 40. To one end let a retort be luted, containing an ounce or two of ether or alcohol; and, to the other, a bent tube, which terminates under the shelf of the pneumatic trough. A gas will be disengaged, on igniting the tube, and transmitting, through it, the alcohol or ether in vapour, which, when washed with lime liquor, is the carburetted hydrogen.

5. A fifth mode of obtaining hydro-carburet, consists in distilling, in a glass retort, with a gentle heat, three parts of concentrated sulphuric acid, and one part of alcohol. The mixture assumes a black colour and thick consistence; and bubbles of gas are disengaged, which may be collected over water. For reasons which will afterwards be stated, this gas has been named the olefiant gas.

II. These varieties of carburetted hydrogen gas all agree in being inflammable; but they possess this property in various degrees, as is evinced by the variable brightness of the flame, which they yield when set on fire. They may be inflamed as they proceed from the orifice of a small pipe, or from between two concentric cylinders of sheet-iron or copper, placed at the distance of a small fraction of an inch from each other. On this principle, an Argand's lamp may be constructed, for burning the gases, which will issue from that space, commonly occupied by the wick.

* In Nicholson's Journal, XI. 68. I have stated my reasons for believing that this gas is not pure hydro-carburet.

1. When burned in either of these modes, there is a manifest gradation in the density and brightness of the flame. The gas from charcoal burns with a faint blue light, not suited to the purpose of illumination ; that from ether or alcohol with more brilliancy ; but still short of that with which the coal gas burns, when recently prepared. The olefiant gas surpasses them all, in the quantity of light evolved by its combustion.

2. If these gases be burned in a portion of oxygen gas over lime water, by means of a bladder and bent brass pipe, (plate IV. fig. 41.) two distinct products are obtained, viz. water and carbonic acid. That water is produced, may be shewn by burning a very small stream of this gas under a long funnel-shaped tube open at both ends. The formation of carbonic acid is evinced, by the copious precipitation of the lime-water in the foregoing experiment.

3. The composition of each of the above gases is learned by firing it, in a detonating tube over mercury, with a known quantity of oxygen gas ; and observing the nature and quantity of the products. These products are carbonic acid and water. The former may be exactly measured ; but the water is generated in such small quantity, that it can only be computed. The following table shews the results of a few experiments of this kind.

Kind of Gas.	Measures of Oxygen Gas required to satu- rate 100 Measures.				Measures of Car- bonic acid pro- duced.			
Pure hydrogen gas	-	-	50 to 54	-	-	-		
Gas from charcoal	-	-	60	-	-	-	35	
———— coal	-	-	170	-	-	-	100	
———— stagnant water			200	-	-	-	100	
Olefiant gas	-	-	284	-	-	-	179	

Now since, for the formation of each measure of carbonic acid gas, in the foregoing experiments, an equal volume of oxygen gas is required, we may learn, by deducting the number in the third column from the corresponding one in the second, what proportion of oxygen has been allotted to the saturation of the hydrogen of each hydro-carburet. Thus, for example, in burning the gas from coal, 100 measures of oxygen have been employed in forming carbonic acid ; and the remaining 70

in saturating hydrogen. But 70 measures of oxygen are sufficient to saturate 140 of hydrogen gas; and a quantity of hydrogen must therefore be contained in 100 measures of gas from coal; which, expanded to its usual elasticity, would occupy 140 measures.

4. The gases vary in their solubility by water, the olefiant gas being absorbed in the largest proportion, viz. 1-8th the bulk of the water; the gas from stagnant water 1-64th; and the others in still less quantity.

5. They vary also in density or specific gravity. Common air being 1000, the olefiant gas is 909; the gas from ether or alcohol 520; and from moistened charcoal 480. The specific gravity of gas from coal, and of that from stagnant water, I am informed by Mr. Dalton, are the same, viz. 666, or as 2 to 3.

6. The only distinct and well characterized species of hydro-carburet appear to me to be the olefiant gas; and the gas from stagnant water, yielding by combustion, an equal bulk of carbonic acid. Of these, the other varieties appear to be only mixtures. The reasons for this opinion I have stated in Nicholson's Journal, Vol. XI. p. 68.



CHAP. XI.

SULPHUR.—SULPHURIC ACID.—SULPHATES.—BINARY
COMPOUNDS OF SULPHUR.

SECT. I.

Sulphur.

I. Sulphur occurs in two different forms; that of flowers, and of stick or roll sulphur. The former is considerably the purest.

II. Sulphur is readily fused and volatilized. When heated to 170° of Fahrenheit, it begins to evaporate, and to produce a very disagreeable smell; at 185° or 190° it begins to melt; and at 220° is completely fluid. If the

heat be rapidly increased, it loses its fluidity, and becomes firm, and of a deeper colour. It regains its fluidity, if we reduce the temperature ; and this may be repeated at pleasure, in close glass vessels, if the changes of heat be not slow ; otherwise it begins to evaporate.

III. If, after being melted, it be suffered to cool, it congeals in a crystalline form, but so confusedly, that we cannot define the shape of the crystals, further than that they are slender interlaced fibres. If a large mass be kept fluid below, while it congeals at the surface, the crystallization there is much more distinct. (N. 19.) When sulphur in complete fusion is poured into water, it becomes tenacious like wax, and may be applied (as is done by Mr. Tassie) to take impressions from engraved stones, &c. These impressions are quite hard, when the sulphur has become cold.

IV. At the temperature of about 290° Fahrenheit, sulphur is converted into vapour ; and if this operation be conducted in close vessels, the volatilized sulphur is again collected in a solid form. This affords an example of the process of *sublimation*, which differs from distillation, in affording a solid product, while the latter yields a condensed liquid. In this mode, sulphur may, in part, be purified ; and its purification is completed, by boiling it repeatedly in distilled water ; then in twice or thrice its weight of nitro-muriatic acid, diluted with one part of distilled water ; and, finally, by washing it with distilled water, till this comes off tasteless, and incapable of changing the blue colours of vegetables.

V. When flowers of sulphur are digested in alcohol, no union takes place ; but if the two bodies be brought into contact, when both are in a state of vapour, they enter into chemical union. This may be shewn by an ingenious experiment of La Grange, the apparatus for performing which are represented in the first plate of his "Manual." Into a glass alembic put a little sulphur ; over this suspend, by a couple of strings, a small bottle filled with alcohol ; and apply a receiver to the pipe of the alembic, the head being put into its place. Lute the junctures, and apply a gentle heat to the alembic. The sulphur will now be raised in vapour ; and the vapour surrounding the bottle of alcohol, the latter will be volatilized, and will meet in this state the fumes of sulphur.

A combination will take place between the two bodies, and sulphurized alcohol will pass into the receiver. On pouring this preparation into water, the sulphur will be precipitated.

VI. Sulphur is inflammable, and appears susceptible of two distinct combustions, which take place at different temperatures.* At 140° or 150° Fahrenheit, it begins sensibly to attract oxygen; and if the temperature be raised to 180° or 190° , the combination becomes pretty rapid, accompanied by a faint blue light. But the heat evolved is scarcely sensible; at least it is so weak, that the sulphur may thus be burnt out of gun-powder, and the powder be rendered useless, without inflaming it. At a temperature of 300° , its combustion though still feeble compared with that of some other bodies, is much more active, and accompanied with a redder light. When set on fire in oxygen gas, it burns with a very beautiful and brilliant light; but of a given quantity of oxygen gas, it is not possible to condense the whole by this combustion, for reasons which hereafter will be stated. The product of these combustions, when examined, will be found to be sulphuric acid.

SECT. II.

Sulphuric Acid.†

I. Though this is not the mode in which sulphuric acid is ordinarily prepared, yet it will be proper for the chemical student to examine the result of this combustion, on account of the simplicity of the process. Let the glass bell under which sulphur has been burnt, be rinsed out with a little water. This water will have an acid taste, will turn vegetable blue colours red, and will effervesce with carbonated alkalis. It is therefore an acid; and as it is composed of sulphur and oxygen, it is termed the sulphuric acid. The properties of this acid

* For an account of the oxides of sulphur, see Dr. Thompson's paper in Nicholson's Journal, VI. 101.

† Much sulphurous acid is also generated in these processes.

must be exhibited by a portion of that usually found in the shops. They are as follows :

(a.) Sulphuric acid has a thick and oily consistence ; as may be seen by pouring it from one vessel into another. In 100 parts, it contains 61 sulphur and 39 oxygen.

(b.) It is nearly twice as heavy as water. This will appear from weighing a small phial filled with the acid, and afterwards filled with distilled water. The same result will be more conveniently obtained, by making the comparison in the long-necked bottle, Plate I. fig. 14. The specific gravity of the acid, as prepared for purposes of commerce, is generally 1.85; but, it may be concentrated, by exposing it to heat, in a retort set in a sand-bath, so as to be of the specific gravity of upwards of 2.

(c.) In a pure state, it is perfectly limpid and colourless.

(d.) When mixed suddenly with water, considerable heat is produced. Four parts, by weight, of concentrated sulphuric acid, and one of water, when suddenly mixed together, each at the temperature of 50° Fahrenheit, have their temperature raised to 300°. A diminution of bulk also ensues ; that is, one measure of acid and one of water do not occupy the space of two measures, but considerably less. Owing to the heat produced by its admixture with water, the dilution, for ordinary purposes, should be conducted very gradually ; and the acid should be added to the water by small portions at once, allowing each portion to cool before a fresh addition is made. On the principle of its attraction for water is to be explained, also, the rapid increase of weight which the acid acquires when exposed to air. In one day, three parts of sulphuric acid, exposed to the atmosphere, are increased in weight one part ; and one ounce, by twelve months exposure, has been found to gain an addition of $6\frac{1}{4}$.

(e.) A perfectly pure sulphuric acid remains quite limpid during dilution. The sulphuric acid, however, commonly found in the shops, under the name of oil of vitriol, on admixture with water, deposits a white powder, in considerable quantity, consisting of various impurities. (N. 20.)

(f.) To purify sulphuric acid, it must be distilled in a glass retort, placed in the sand-bed of a reverberatory

furnace. This process is a very difficult one; and an inexperienced chemist should, therefore, not attempt it. To those, however, who have the means of repeating the process, and sufficient experience in chemical operations, the following instructions may be useful; especially as it is indispensable, in all experiments of research, to employ an acid thus purified.

The furnace, in which this process is conducted, should have a contrivance for supporting a sand-bath within it at a proper height; and an opening in the side, for transmitting the neck of the retort. (Plate VII. fig. 62. 63.) The retort must be coated with clay and sand over its whole body, and also over that part of the neck which is exposed to the fire. It is then to be placed, the coating being previously dry, in the sand-bath, about one-half filled with sulphuric acid; and a receiver must be applied, but not luted on. The fire must now be lighted, and raised with extreme caution. The first portion that comes over, amounting to about one-sixth, consists chiefly of water, and may be rejected. This is followed by the concentrated acid; and, at this period, there is great risk that the neck of the retort will be broken, by the contact of the condensed acid, which has a very high temperature, and which frequently cracks the glass, as effectually as the application of a red-hot iron. The fire must be regulated by the register-door of the ash-pit, so that several seconds may elapse between the fall of the drops into the receiver. The process may be continued as long as any acid is condensed. The retorts, employed for this purpose, should be most attentively annealed; and it is advisable, that the operator should anneal them himself, by first heating them in an oven, and then allowing the oven to cool as slowly as possible.

Sulphuric acid may be less perfectly purified by diluting it with an equal weight of water, allowing the impurities to settle, decanting the clear liquor, and evaporating it to the proper degree in a glass vessel.

(g.) Sulphuric acid is decomposed at the temperature of the atmosphere, by inflammable substances, and acquires a dark colour. The addition of a little brown sugar, or a drop of oil, to a portion of the acid, imparts to it a brownish hue, which in time changes to black. Hence this acid should always be kept in bottles with

glass stoppers ; for a small bit of cork, if dropped into a considerable quantity, changes it in the manner that has been pointed out.

(h.) In high temperatures, sulphuric acid is still further decomposed by combustible bodies.

1. Hydrogen gas, brought into contact with sulphuric acid, in a state approaching ignition, decomposes it, and water and sulphurous acid are formed. This, however, is a most dangerous and difficult process, which it is not advisable to repeat. The decomposition of the acid may be safely effected in the following manner :

2. Into a glass retort put such a quantity of sulphuric acid as will fill about one-fourth part of it, and add a small portion of powdered charcoal. On applying the heat of a lamp, gas will be produced very abundantly. Let this gas be conveyed by a tube fixed to the mouth of a retort, and bent in the proper manner, into an inverted jar of water ; or, if it can be had, into an inverted jar of quicksilver in a mercurial apparatus. During this operation, the carbon attracts part of the oxygen of the sulphuric acid, and forms carbonic acid gas. But the sulphur is not entirely disoxygenated ; and a compound is therefore formed of sulphur and oxygen, containing less oxygen than the sulphuric acid. This compound exists in the state of a gas, and its properties may next be examined. To avoid, however, the complication which the admixture of carbonic acid with this new product introduces into the experiment, it may be proper to prepare it in a mode less objectionable, but the *rationale* of which cannot at present be explained. This consists in dissolving one part, by weight, of quicksilver in two of sulphuric acid, and boiling the mass to dryness. The dried mass, still remaining in the retort, is next to be distilled in a strong sand-heat ; a glass globe being interposed between the retort and the receiving mercurial trough, to condense any sulphuric acid that may escape decomposition. (See Plate III. fig. 30. 31.) The gas thus obtained is termed, conformably to the principles of the new nomenclature, *sulphurous acid*.

SECT. III.

Sulphurous Acid Gas.

Its properties are the following :

(a.) It has a pungent and suffocating smell, exactly resembling that which arises from burning sulphur.

(b.) It is above twice heavier than atmospherical air.

(c.) It extinguishes burning bodies, and kills animals.

(d.) It has the property of whitening or bleaching silk, and of giving it lustre.

(e.) Of sulphurous acid, water absorbs 33 times its bulk, or 1-11th of its weight, caloric is evolved, and the solution has the specific gravity 1.0513. From this fluid it is again separated, like carbonic acid, by the application of heat.

(f.) This watery solution does not redden infusion of litmus, as acids in general do, but totally destroys its colour.

(g.) Sulphuric acid, saturated with this gas, which may be effected by passing the gas through the acid, acquires a strong smell, and the property of assuming a solid form, by a moderate reduction of its temperature.

(h.) Sulphurous acid is again converted to the state of sulphuric, by restoring oxygen to it.

1. A mixture of oxygen and sulphurous acid gases, both perfectly dry, and standing over mercury, is not diminished by remaining in contact during some months; but if a small quantity of water be added, the mixture begins to diminish, and sulphuric acid is formed.

2. To a portion of water saturated with this gas, add a little oxide of manganese, a substance that contains much oxygen loosely combined. The pungent smell of the water, and the other characteristics of sulphurous acid, will soon disappear.

(i.) When the temperature of sulphurous acid gas is greatly reduced, by surrounding it with a mixture of snow and muriate of lime, it is changed into a liquid.

(k.) If sulphurous acid gas and fresh muriate of tin are brought into contact over mercury, the volume of the gas is speedily diminished, sulphur is deposited, and the sim-

ple muriate becomes an oxygenized muriate of tin. (Accum.)

Both these acids are susceptible of combination with alkalis.

(*l.*) It is decomposed, when submitted to the heat of ignition, in contact with certain combustible bodies. Thus, when a mixture of sulphurous acid and hydrogen gases are driven through a red-hot porcelain tube, the oxygen of the acid combines with the hydrogen, and forms water, and sulphur is obtained in a separate form. The sulphurous acid is decomposed, also, when transmitted over red-hot charcoal.

SECT. IV.

Combination of Sulphuric Acid with Alkalis.

ART. I.—*Sulphate of Potash.*

This salt may be formed by saturating the carbonate of potash with sulphuric acid, and crystallizing the solution. Its properties are the following.

(*a.*) It crystallizes in small six-sided prisms, terminated by six-sided pyramids with triangular faces.

(*b.*) It has a bitter taste.

(*c.*) It decrepitates, or crackles, when thrown on a red-hot iron, or on red-hot coals, and is volatilized by a strong heat.

(*d.*) Water, at 60° of Fahrenheit, takes up only 1-16th of its weight; but boiling water dissolves one-fifth.

(*e.*) One hundred parts contain 30.21 acid, 64.61 alkali, and 5.18 water.

(*f.*) This sulphate is decomposed, in high temperatures, by carbon. Mix any quantity of the salt with one-fourth of its weight of charcoal finely powdered, and expose the mixture, in a crucible, to a strong heat. The carbon will unite with the oxygen of the sulphuric acid, and will escape in the state of a gas. What remains is a compound, hereafter to be described, of sulphur and potash.

ART. II.—*Sulphate of Soda.*

(a.) This salt forms regular octahedral crystals, of a prismatic or cuneiform figure; the two terminating pyramids of which are truncated near their basis.

(b.) It has a more bitter taste than the preceding, and melts more easily in the mouth.

(c.) It swells upon a heated iron, in consequence of the loss of its water of crystallization, and a white powder is left.

(d.) By exposure to the atmosphere, it effloresces, and loses weight.

(e.) It is very soluble in water, three parts of which, at 60° of temperature, dissolve one of the salt; and boiling water dissolves its own weight.

(f.) It contains *per cent.* 14 acid, 22 alkali, and 64 water.

(g.) It is decomposed by charcoal like the preceding salt, and a compound remains of sulphur and soda.

ART. III.—*Sulphate of Ammonia.*

(a.) The sulphate of ammonia forms long flattened prisms with six sides, terminated by six-sided pyramids.

(b.) It slightly attracts moisture from the air.

(c.) It has a cool bitter taste.

(d.) Two parts of water, at 60°, take up one of the salt, and boiling water dissolves its own weight. During solution, it produces cold; and also when mingled with powdered ice, or with snow.

(e.) The sublimed salt has an excess of acid; a portion of the base being expelled by the application of heat.

(f.) It contains *per cent.* 55 acid, 14 ammonia, and 31 water.

(g.) It liquefies by a gentle heat, and is volatilized. If a stronger heat be applied, it is decomposed. See Mr. Hatchett's paper in *Phil. Trans.* 1796, or *Davy's Researches*.

(h.) The pure fixed alkalis, potash, and soda, seize the sulphuric acid, and set at liberty the alkali. Hence a strong smell of ammonia arises on the admixture of pure soda or potash with this salt.

ART. IV.—*Sulphate of Barytes.*

Barytes has a powerful affinity for sulphuric acid; and the combination of these two bodies may be effected with great facility.

(a.) To a solution of pure barytes, add sulphuric acid. A white precipitate will appear, which is the sulphate of barytes.

(b.) The same compound is formed, by adding sulphuric acid to carbonate of barytes, or to a solution of muriate or nitrate of barytes.

(c.) The sulphate of barytes is one of the most insoluble substances that chemistry presents, requiring for its solution 43,000 times its weight of water.

(d.) Barytes has a stronger affinity than any other body for sulphuric acid.

(e.) Owing to these properties, the solution of pure barytes, and of the nitrate and muriate of barytes, are excellent and very sensible tests of sulphuric acid, and of all its combinations. Let a single drop of sulphuric acid fall into a wine quart of pure distilled water. On adding a few drops of one of the foregoing solutions of barytes, a precipitation will ensue.

(f.) Sulphate of barytes is decomposed by carbonate of potash. Boil the powdered sulphate with a solution of twice or three times its weight of carbonate of potash. The carbonic acid will pass to the barytes, and the sulphuric to the potash.

(g.) By this process, carbonate of barytes may be procured, for the purpose of preparing the pure earth, and its various salts, when the native carbonate cannot be had in sufficient abundance. The sulphate is found, in considerable quantities, accompanying lead ore, in Derbyshire and other parts of England, where it is known by the names of cawk, ponderous spar, &c. When applied to the purpose of obtaining the carbonate of barytes, it is to be mixed with three or four times its weight of sub-carbonate of potash, and boiled with a proper quantity of water for a considerable time, in an iron kettle, stirring it, and breaking down the hard lumps, into which it is apt to run, by an iron pestle. It is then to be washed with boiling water, as long as this

acquires any taste. On the addition of dilute muriatic acid, a violent effervescence will ensue, and a considerable portion of the earth, probably along with some metals, will be dissolved. To the saturated solution, add a small portion of pure ammonia. This will throw down any metals that may be present; and the barytes may afterwards be precipitated in the state of a carbonate, by a solution of carbonate of potash. Let the precipitated earth be well washed with distilled water; and, if the pure barytes is to be obtained from it, let it be treated as directed Chap. X.

(h.) Sulphate of barytes is also decomposed when ignited with powdered charcoal, which abstracts the oxygen of the sulphuric acid, and leaves a combination of sulphur and barytes. From this, the barytes may be removed by muriatic acid, as already directed, and the muriatic solution be decomposed by carbonate of potash.

(i.) The sulphate of barytes, when decomposed by charcoal, affords one variety of solar phosphorus. This phosphorus has been called, from the place where the sulphate is found from which it was first prepared, the Bolognian phosphorus. The native sulphate, powdered after being ignited, and finely sifted, is to be formed into a paste with mucilage of gum arabic, and divided into cylinders or pieces of one-fourth of an inch in thickness. These, after being dried in a moderate heat, are to be exposed to the temperature of a wind-furnace, placed in the midst of the charcoal. When the fuel is half consumed, it must be replenished, and suffered to burn out. The pieces will be found, retaining their original shapes, among the ashes, from which they may be separated by the blast of a pair of bellows. They must be preserved in a well-stopped vial.

This phosphorus, after being exposed a few minutes to the sun's rays, shines in the dark sufficiently to render visible the dial of a watch. This property is lost by repeated use, in consequence of the oxygenation of the sulphur; but may be restored by a second calcination.

(k.) Sulphate of barytes, when artificially formed and calcined, contains *per cent.* 25 acid and 75 earth. The native sulphate, according to Klaproth, is composed of one-third acid and two-thirds base. (*Contributions*, I. 377.)

ART. V.—*Sulphate of Strontites.*

I. This salt resembles, very nearly, the sulphate of barytes. It may be formed in a similar manner, by pouring the solution of pure strontites into diluted sulphuric acid, or into the solution of an alkaline sulphate; for it has a stronger affinity than any of the alkalies for sulphuric acid. It is soluble in 3840 parts of boiling water.

II. The sulphate of strontites is also found native in considerable quantities; chiefly at Aust Passage, and at other places in the neighbourhood of Bristol. As the native carbonate is now becoming scarce, this compound may be advantageously employed for procuring artificial carbonate of strontites. The process is precisely similar to that already prescribed for decomposing the sulphate of barytes, (Art. iv. g.)

ART. VI.—*Sulphate of Lime.* (N. 21.)

I. The sulphate of lime is formed, by adding to the carbonate a sufficient quantity of sulphuric acid; and by gently calcining the residue, to expel the redundancy of the latter acid. It is also found native, in great abundance, under the names of gypsum, plaster of Paris, &c.

II. It has the following properties:

1. It is insipid and free from smell.
2. It is difficultly soluble, requiring 500 times its weight of cold water, or 450 of hot water.
3. It is fusible by a moderate heat. After calcination, it absorbs water rapidly, and forms a good cement.
4. It is decomposed by carbonates of alkali, a double exchange of principles ensuing. Hence the milkiness which ensues on adding carbonate of potash to most spring waters; the carbonate of lime, which is generated, being less soluble than the sulphate. Hence, also, hard waters, which always contain sulphate of lime in solution, curdle soap, the alkali of which is detached by the sulphuric acid, and the oil is set at liberty.
5. It is decomposed by ignition with charcoal, which separates the oxygen of the sulphuric acid, and leaves a combination of lime with sulphur.

ART. VII.—*Sulphate of Magnesia.*

I. When highly concentrated sulphuric acid is suddenly added to fresh-prepared and pure magnesia, prodigious heat and vapour are excited, and are accompanied frequently with an extrication of light. This appearance was first observed by Westrumb.

II. If the carbonate of magnesia be added to diluted sulphuric acid, the carbonic acid is expelled, and a solution of sulphate of magnesia is formed, which crystallizes on cooling. Crystals of sulphate of magnesia may also be procured in the shops, under the name of Epsom salt.

III. These crystals have the following properties :

1. They have the form of small quadrangular prisms, surmounted by quadrangular pyramids with dihedral summits.

2. At the temperature of 60° , this salt is soluble in an equal weight of cold water, and in three-fourths its weight of boiling water, which thus receives an addition of one fourth to its bulk.

3. It effloresces in the air, and is slowly reduced to powder. When exposed to a strong heat, it undergoes the watery fusion, but is not volatilized.

4. Its solution is precipitated by carbonates of potash and of soda; but not by carbonate of ammonia, unless heat is applied. The carbonate of magnesia of the shops is prepared, by mixing together concentrated and hot solutions of carbonate of potash, and sulphate of magnesia. The sulphate of potash, thus formed, is removed by copious washing with water, and the carbonate of magnesia is then dried. The proportions employed are filtered solutions of equal weights of the two salts, each in its own weight of boiling water.

5. When a dilute solution of carbonate of soda is mixed with a dilute solution of sulphate of magnesia, and the sub-carbonate which is formed, if any, is separated by filtration, crystals of carbonate of magnesia, after some time, shoot in the liquid, containing a larger proportion of carbonic acid, and already described Chap. X. Sect. iv.

ART. VIII. *Sulphate of Alumine.*

The properties of this salt may be exhibited by those of the common alum of commerce; though, as will afterwards appear, alum is not merely a combination of this earth with sulphuric acid. It has the following characters.

(a.) It has a sweetish astringent taste.

(b.) It dissolves in water, five parts of which, at 60°, take up one of the salt, but hot water dissolves about 3-4ths of its weight.

(c.) This solution reddens vegetable blue colours; which proves the acid to be in excess.

(d.) When mixed with a solution of carbonate of potash, an effervescence is produced by the uncombined acid, which also prevents the first portions of alkali, that are added to a solution of sulphate of alumine, from occasioning any precipitate.

(e.) On a farther addition of alkali, the alumine is precipitated.

(f.) Sulphate of alumine, when heated, swells up, loses its regular form, and becomes a dry spongy mass; but, according to Vauquelin, (37 *Ann. de Chim.* p. 91.) the whole of its acid cannot thus be expelled.

(g.) The combination of sulphuric acid with alumine is incapable of crystallizing without an admixture of sulphate of potash, (N. 22.) which forms a constituent of all the alum of commerce. According to Vauquelin, 100 parts consist of 49 dry sulphate of alumine, 7 sulphate of potash, and 44 water.

(h.) It is decomposed by charcoal, which combines with the oxygen of the sulphuric acid, and leaves the sulphur attached to the alumine. A combination of alumine, sulphur, and charcoal, forms the *pyrophorus of Homberg*. To prepare this, equal parts of powdered alum and brown sugar are melted over the fire, and are kept stirring till reduced to dryness. The mixture is then to be finely powdered, and introduced into a common phial, coated with clay, to which a glass tube, open at each end, is luted, to allow the escape of the gases that are produced. The phial must then be set in the fire, surrounded

by sand, in a crucible. Gas will issue from the open end of the tube, and may be inflamed by a lighted paper. When this ceases to escape, the crucible may be removed from the fire, and a little moist clay pressed down upon the open end of the tube, to prevent the access of air to the contents of the phial.

The pyrophorus thus formed is a black and light powder, which instantly takes fire when poured out of the bottle into the air, and inflames suddenly in oxygen gas.

ART. IX.—*Sulphate of Glucine.*

Glucine combines readily with sulphuric acid, both in its pure and carbonated state. The resulting salt is extremely soluble; insomuch that, when evaporated, it assumes the form of a syrup, without crystallizing. Its taste is sweet, and rather astringent. It is decomposed entirely in a high temperature, the earth being left in a state of purity. It is also destroyed by ignition with charcoal. It does not yield its earthy ingredient to any of the acids; but is decomposed by all the alkalis and earths, alumine excepted.

ART. X.—*Sulphate of Zircon.*

To effect the combination of zircon with any acid, this earth should be fresh precipitated; for, after being dried, it enters with difficulty into union.

The salt, resulting from the union of sulphuric acid with zircon, is white, insoluble, and without taste. It is decomposed by a high temperature, which expels the acid, and leaves the zircon pure. It is not changed by other acids, but yields its sulphuric acid to the alkalis, and to most of the earths.

ART. XI.—*Sulphate of Yttria.*

Sulphuric acid readily dissolves yttria, and caloric is evolved during the process. As the solution goes on, the sulphate crystallizes in small brilliant grains, which have

a sweetish taste, but less marked than that of the sulphate of glucine. Their colour is a light amethyst red. They require 30 parts of water, of the temperature of 60°, for solution, and give up their acid when exposed to a high temperature. They are decomposed by oxalic acid, prussiate of potash, infusion of galls, and phosphate of soda.

SECT. V.

Sulphites.

I. The combination of sulphurous acid with alkaline and earthy bases, may be effected by passing the gas, as it proceeds from the materials, (Sect II. *h.*) through the base, dissolved or diffused in water. An intermediate vessel may be placed, as represented fig. 30. and 31. to condense any sulphuric acid that may pass over; and the solution of the alkali or earth may be contained in a bottle with two necks. Pure potash, soda, or ammonia, are readily kept in solution; but barytes or strontites must be dissolved in boiling water; and the bottle containing them must be surrounded with hot water, while the gas is transmitted through the solution. The solution, when saturated with gas, may be evaporated; and this is best done in an alembic, covered with its capital, because the salt is changed by the action of the atmosphere.

II. The sulphites have no peculiarly interesting properties, that can entitle them to minute and specific description, in a work devoted solely to the students of chemical science. I shall enumerate, therefore, those properties only that belong to the whole class; and refer, for farther information, to the 2d and 24th volumes of the *Annales de Chimie*. Their general qualities are the following:

1. They have a disagreeable taste and smell, resembling that of the fumes of burning sulphur.

2. When heated, they emit sulphurous acid and water, and then sulphur, which, on the application of an inflamed substance, takes fire, and burns violently.

3. Exposed to the atmosphere, in a state of solution,

they absorb oxygen, and are slowly changed into sulphates.

4. When added to nitric acid, red fumes arise, and the salts become sulphates. Oxygenised muriatic acid produces the same effect. Concentrated sulphuric acid expels sulphurous acid gas, which may be collected over mercury.

5. When perfectly pure, sulphites are not precipitated by a solution of pure barytes or strontites, or by any of the salts with base of either of those earths. If a precipitation ensue, it indicates the presence of a portion of sulphate.

SECT. VI.

*Binary Compounds of Sulphur.—1st, With Alkalies—
2d, With Sulphur.**

ART. 1.—Sulphurets.

I. The combination of sulphur, with the fixed alkalies and earths, may be formed by fusing together, in a covered crucible, equal parts of sulphur and the respective alkali or earth with which it is to be combined. The compound is to be poured, when in a state of fusion, into an iron dish, or upon a smooth stone; and preserved in a well-closed bottle. These compounds have, for the most part, a reddish brown, or liver colour; and hence were formerly called hepars, or livers of sulphur. They may be formed, also, by fusing the alkaline or earthy sulphates with powdered charcoal; but in this case, the sulphuret generally contains a portion of carbonic acid, and also of charcoal.

Sulphuret of lime, when intended for the purpose of *Canton's phosphorus*, is best prepared by placing, in a crucible, alternate strata of calcined and pounded oyster shells and sulphur; exposing them to a moderate heat; and then confining them in a bottle with a ground stopper. Or, according to the original directions of Canton, three parts of oyster shells, calcined for about an hour and pulverised, are to be mixed with one of sulphur, and ram-

* The title of this section is erroneously printed. It ought to be, Binary compounds of sulphur, 1st. with Alkalies and Earths, 2d. with Hydrogen.

med tightly into a crucible, which is to be kept red-hot for about an hour. The compound, when cold, has the properties already assigned to the Bolognian phosphorus.

II. Sulphurets have the following properties :

(a.) In a moist state they emit an offensive smell, and have a disagreeable taste.

(b.) They change to green the colour of violets, in the same manner as uncombined alkalis.

(c.) They blacken the skin, silk, and other animal substances.

(d.) They are decomposed by all acids. Into a Nooth's machine put a weak solution of sulphuret of alkali, and pass through it streams of carbonic acid gas. In the course of a few days, the sulphur will be precipitated, and a carbonate of alkali will be obtained. This decomposition ensues, instantly, on adding, to a solution of a sulphuret, any of the stronger acids, as the sulphuric, nitric, or muriatic ; and we obtain a compound of the alkali with the respective acid employed.

(e.) The liquid sulphurets absorb oxygen gas. This may be shewn by the experiments already described, (Chap. V.) If the change thus effected be examined, it will be found that the oxygen has combined with the sulphur, and formed sulphuric acid, which, uniting with the alkali, has composed the sulphate of potash.

(f.) If dilute muriatic acid be poured on the solution of sulphuret of potash or soda, a violent effervescence will ensue, and a very offensive gas be disengaged. This gas may be collected over water. It is termed sulphuretted hydrogen gas.

ART. II.—*Sulphuretted Hydrogen Gas.*

I. This gas may be obtained in the foregoing manner, or from a mixture of three parts by weight of iron filings and one of sulphur, previously melted together in a covered crucible. A portion of the fused mass may be put into a gas-bottle, and diluted sulphuric or muriatic acid poured on it, which will extricate the sulphuretted hydrogen gas.

II. Its properties are the following :

(a.) Its smell is extremely offensive, resembling that of putrifying eggs.

(b.) It is inflammable, and burns either silently or with an explosion, according as it is previously mixed, or not, with oxygen gas or atmospheric air. During this combustion, water results from the union of the hydrogen with the oxygen, and sulphuric and sulphurous acids from that of the oxygen and sulphur.

When three parts of sulphuretted hydrogen are mingled with two of nitrous gas, the mixture burns with a yellowish green flame.

(c.) It tarnishes silver, mercury, and other polished metals, and instantly blackens white paint.

(d.) It is absorbed by water, which takes up its own bulk, and thus acquires the peculiar smell of the gas. It is this gas which gives to the Harrowgate, and some other natural waters, their disagreeable odour.

(e.) Water, saturated with this gas, turns red the infusion of violets, in this respect producing the effect of an acid.

(f.) Water impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen, when exposed to the atmosphere, becomes, covered with a pellicle of sulphur. Sulphur is even deposited when the water is kept in well-closed bottles.

(g.) On the addition of a few drops of nitric or nitrous acid to the watery solution, sulphur is instantly precipitated. In this case the oxygen of the acid combines with the hydrogen of the gas, and the sulphur is separated.

(h.) This gas, as will afterwards appear, is decomposed by mixture with oxygenised muriatic acid gas; and sulphur is precipitated.

(i.) It is decomposed also when kept in a state of mixture with atmospheric air, the oxygen of which combines with the hydrogen, and forms water, while the sulphur is precipitated.

(k.) When sulphuretted hydrogen gas and sulphurous acid gas are mingled together, the hydrogen of the former unites with the oxygen of the latter, and the sulphur of both is precipitated.

(l.) It is decomposed when passed over ignited charcoal, and is converted into carburetted hydrogen gas.

(m.) Sulphuretted hydrogen, according to Thenard, is composed, in 100 parts, of 29 hydrogen, and 71 sulphur.

(n) It precipitates, both in the state of a gas and of watery impregnation, all metallic solutions, excepting those of iron, nickel, cobalt, manganese, titanium, and molybdena.

(o) It is copiously absorbed by alkalis, and by all the earths, excepting alumine and zircon. These alkaline and earthy combinations are termed hydro-sulphurets.

ART. III.—*Hydro-Sulphurets.*

In its union with alkaline and earthy bases, sulphuretted hydrogen seems to perform, in a great measure, the functions of an acid; and presents, therefore, an important exception to the doctrine of acidification; for, in this instance, a body, entirely destitute of oxygen, possesses some of the most important characters of an acid, viz. the property of changing vegetable blues to red, and of uniting with alkalis.

I. The hydro-sulphurets may be formed, by transmitting sulphuretted hydrogen gas, as it issues from the materials that afford it, through a solution of the alkaline or earthy base. Or the base, when insoluble, must be kept suspended in water by mechanical agitation.

II. The hydro-sulphurets have several qualities common to the whole genus.

1. They are all soluble in water, and the recent solution is colourless. By exposure to the air, however, it first becomes green, or greenish yellow, and deposits sulphur on the sides of the vessel. The glass bottle, containing the solution, becomes black on its inner surface, in consequence of the combination of sulphur with the oxide of lead contained in the glass.

2. After long exposure to the atmosphere, the solution entirely loses its colour, and again becomes perfectly limpid. When examined, it is found to consist of a combination of sulphuric acid with the peculiar base of the hydro-sulphuret. This is owing to the absorption of oxygen, which all hydro-sulphurets take from the atmosphere; the formation of a sulphite; and the conversion of this, by farther oxygenation, into a sulphate. Hence, when confined in contact with a limited quantity of atmospherical air, hydro-sulphurets effect a diminution of

volume ; and may be employed to ascertain its proportion of oxygen. They entirely absorb pure oxygen gas.

3. When an acid is poured on any of the hydro-sulphurets, the sulphuretted hydrogen gas is disengaged. The acid employed should be one which strongly retains its oxygen, such as the sulphuric or muriatic ; otherwise it will probably be decomposed. A hydro-sulphuret, which has been a few days exposed to the air, yields, by this treatment, sulphurous acid gas, along with sulphuretted hydrogen.

4. The solutions of hydro-sulphurets precipitate all metallic solutions. They also precipitate alumine and zircon from their solutions, but no other earths.

5. The hydro-sulphurets are, for the most part, susceptible of a regularly crystallized form.

The enumeration of these characters appears to me to be sufficient for the purposes of the general student.—More detailed information may be found in a memoir of Berthollet, in the 25th vol. of the *Ann. de Chim.* ; and in an essay of Vauquelin in the 42d vol. of the same work.

ART. IV.—*Super-Sulphuretted Hydrogen, and Hydroguretted Sulphurets.*

Super-sulphuretted hydrogen is obtained, when hydro-sulphuret of potash is poured, by little and little, into muriatic acid. A very small portion only of gas escapes ; and while the greater part of the sulphur separates, one portion of it combines with the sulphuretted hydrogen ; assumes the appearance of an oil ; and is deposited at the bottom of the vessel. When separated, by decanting the fluid from above it, its properties are the following ;

1. If gently heated, sulphuretted hydrogen gas exhales from it ; the super-sulphuret loses its fluidity ; and a residue is left, consisting merely of sulphur.

2. It combines with alkalis and earths ; and forms with them a class of substances called hydroguretted sulphurets.

There are, therefore, three distinct combinations of sulphur and its compounds with alkalis and earths. The first, simply, of sulphur, united with an alkaline

or earthy base, and are called strictly *sulphurets*. The second are composed of sulphuretted hydrogen, united with a base, and are called *hydro-sulphurets*. The third contain super-sulphuretted hydrogen, attached to a base, and constitute *hydroguretted sulphurets*.

The sulphurets can exist, as such, only in a dry state; for the moment they begin to dissolve in water, a decomposition of that fluid commences; sulphuretted hydrogen is formed; and this, uniting with an additional dose of sulphur, composes super-sulphuretted hydrogen. This last, uniting with the base, forms an hydroguretted sulphuret. Hence the sulphurets are changed, by solution, into hydroguretted sulphurets.

II. The hydroguretted sulphurets are also formed by boiling, along with a sufficient quantity of water, the alkaline, or earthy base, with flowers of sulphur. Thus a solution of pure potash, pure soda, or of barytes or strontites, may be changed into hydroguretted sulphurets. To prepare this compound, with base of lime, the powdered earth, mixed with sulphur, may be boiled with a proper quantity of water, and the solution filtered. The hydroguretted sulphuret of ammonia (which base cannot, in strictness, owing to its liquid form, compose a true sulphuret) may be prepared as follows: Mix together, in a mortar, three parts of lime, fallen to powder in the air, and sifted, one part of muriate of ammonia, and one of flowers of sulphur. Introduce the mixture into a retort, and apply a receiver. Begin the distillation with a gentle heat. The first liquor, that comes over, has a light yellow tinge, and emits fumes; the second has a deeper colour, and is not fuming. When the latter begins to appear, the fire may be raised.

Another method of forming, by a very simple process, the hydroguretted sulphurets, consists in digesting, in a gentle heat, a hydro-sulphuret with powdered sulphur, an additional portion of which is thus dissolved by the sulphuretted hydrogen.

Hydroguretted sulphurets have the following properties.

1. They have a deep greenish-yellow colour; an acrid and intensely bitter taste; and an excessively offensive smell.

2. They deposit sulphur when kept in . . .

become much more transparent and lighter coloured ; and less offensive to the smell.

3. They rapidly absorb oxygen from the atmosphere, and from oxygen gas. Hence their employment in eudiometry. (See Chap. v. Sect. 4.)

4. On the addition of dilute sulphuric, or muriatic, or of certain other acids, they are decomposed. Sulphuretted hydrogen gas is evolved, and sulphur is precipitated.

CHAP. XII.

COMBINATION OF AZOTE WITH OXYGEN, CONSTITUTING NITRIC ACID,—NITROUS GAS,—NITROUS OXIDE,—AND COMPOUNDS OF NITRIC ACID WITH ALKALIS.

SECT. I.

Nitric Acid.

1. The direct combination of azote and oxygen, affording a decisive synthetic proof of the nature of this acid, may be effected by passing the electric shock through a mixture of azotic and oxygen gases. The experiment is an extremely laborious one, and requires, for its performance, a powerful electrical machine ; but those who are disposed to repeat it, may proceed as follows.

Let the tube, fig. 29, be filled with, and inverted in, mercury. Pass into it a portion of atmospherical air, or an artificial mixture of azotic and oxygen gases, in the proportion of 1 of the former to 2 of the latter.—Let an iron wire, lengthened out with one of platina, be introduced within the tube, so that the latter metal only may be in contact with the mixed gases ; and let the end of this wire be distant about 1-4th of an inch from

the extremity of the upper one. When the apparatus is thus disposed, pass a series of electric shocks through the gases for several hours. The mixture will be diminished in bulk ; will redden litmus paper when inclosed in it ; and will exhibit distinctly the smell of nitrous acid. If the experiment be repeated, with the addition of a few drops of solution of potash, in contact with the gases, we shall obtain a combination of nitric acid with potash.

For all purposes of utility or experiment, however, nitric acid is prepared in a different manner, viz. by the decomposition of nitrate of potash, in a way which will presently be described.

II. The analysis of the acid may be obtained by driving it through a red-hot porcelain tube, (fig. 40, cc.) and receiving the generated gases, which prove to be a mixture of azotic and oxygen gases.

III. The nitric acid has the following properties :

(a) It is heavier than water, in the proportion of 1.5 to 1.

In its heaviest form, however, it still contains a portion of water. Pure nitric acid may be considered as a gaseous body, of the specific gravity, compared with common air, of 2440. The liquid acid consists of this gas condensed by water, of which it contains various proportions, as is shewn by the following table of Mr. Davy.

TABLE

Of the quantities of True Nitric Acid in solutions of different Specific Gravities.

100 Parts Nitric Acid of specific gravity		True Acid*	Water
1,3040	contain	91,55	8,45
1,4475		80,39	19,61
1,4285		71,65	28,35
1,3906		62,96	37,04
1,3551		56,88	43,12
1,3186		52,03	47,97
1,3042		49,04	50,96
1,2831		46,03	53,97
1,2090		45,27	54,73

(b) Pure gaseous nitric acid, according to the same ingenious chemist, is composed of $29\frac{1}{2}$ azote, and $70\frac{1}{2}$ oxygen.

(c) The watery solution is perfectly limpid and colourless.

(d) It gives a yellow stain to the skin.

(e) It boils at 248° Fahrenheit, and may be distilled over, without any essential change.

(f) It absorbs moisture from the atmosphere; and hence it increases in weight, and diminishes in specific gravity, by exposure to the air.

(g) When two parts of the acid are suddenly diluted with one of water, an elevation of temperature is produced to about 112° Fahrenheit. When more water is added to this diluted acid, its temperature is reduced.

(h) It becomes coloured by exposure to the sun's light, passing first to a straw colour, and then to a deep orange.

* The quantities of oxygen and nitrogen in any solution, may be thus found — Let a = the true acid, x the oxygen, and y the nitrogen.

$$\text{Then } x = \frac{2.389}{3.389} a \text{ and } y = \frac{a}{3.389}$$

This effect is produced by the union of the light of the sun with oxygen, in consequence of which the proportion of the acidifying principle to the azote is diminished.

By exposing it to the sun's rays in a gas-bottle, the bent tube of which terminates under water, oxygen gas may be procured.

(i) This acid retains its oxygen with but little force.—Hence it is decomposed by all combustible bodies, which are oxygenized by it, with more or less rapidity in proportion to their affinity for oxygen.

1. When brought into contact with hydrogen gas at a high temperature, a violent detonation ensues. This experiment, therefore, requires great caution. 2. Poured on perfectly dry and powdered charcoal, it excites the combustion of the charcoal, which becomes red-hot, and emits an immense quantity of fumes. 3. It also inflames essential oils (as those of turpentine and cloves,) when suddenly poured on them. In these experiments, the acid should be poured out of a bottle, tied to the end of a long stick ; otherwise the operator's face and eyes may be severely injured. 4. Nitric acid is decomposed, by boiling it in contact with sulphur, which attracts the oxygen, and forms sulphuric acid.

(k) The acid is also decomposed by metals ; as iron, tin, zinc, copper, &c. and with different phenomena, according to the affinity of each metal for oxygen. This may be seen, by pouring some strong nitric acid on iron-filings, or powdered tin. Violent heat, attended with red fumes, will be produced, and the metals will be oxydized.

(l) If the action of metals on nitric acid be more moderately conducted, a new product is obtained in a gaseous state. Dilute some nitric acid with an equal weight of water, and dissolve, in this, some turnings of copper, or a portion of quicksilver, applying heat, if necessary.—This must be done in a gas bottle, and the product received, over water, is nitrous gas, or nitric oxide.

SECT. II.

Nitrous Gas, or Nitric Oxide.

The properties of this gas are the following :

(a) It is permanent over water ; but it is absorbed in small quantity, when agitated with water which has been recently boiled, and has become cold. This solution, according to La Grange (vol. i. p. 131,) is converted, by long keeping, into nitrate of ammonia, in consequence of the decomposition of the water.

(b) When well washed with water, it is not acid. It will be found not to redden litmus paper, when introduced into it through water.

(c) It extinguishes flame, and is fatal to animals. Homberg's pyrophorus, however, is inflamed by it ; and charcoal and phosphorus, introduced into it when in a state of actual combustion, continue to burn vehemently.

(d) Mingled with hydrogen gas, it imparts a green colour to its flame.

(e) When mixed with oxygen gas, red fumes arise ; heat is evolved ; a diminution takes place ; and if the two gases be in proper proportion, and perfectly pure, they disappear entirely. Nitrous acid, at the same time, is regenerated.

(f) The same appearances ensue, less remarkably, with atmospheric air ; and the diminution is only proportionate to the quantity of oxygen gas which it contains. Thus one hundred measures of a mixture of oxygen and azotic gases, and 85 of nitrous gas, containing 13 per cent. of azotic gas, are reduced, by admixture, to about 39 ; and deducting 11 measures for the azotic gas, contained in 85 measures of nitrous gas, we find that the air, under examination, contained 28 per cent. of oxygen gas. On this principle, of its condensing oxygen, but no other gas, is founded the application of nitrous gas to the purpose of eudiometry, or of ascertaining the purity of air. The sources of error, however, in its employment in this mode, are such as to forbid our relying implicitly on the results which it may afford, notwithstanding the improvements lately made in

its application by M. Humboldt. (See *Annales de Chimie*, vol. 28, p. 123.) I prefer the sulphuret of potash or lime, as a more certain test of the purity of air; (Ch. V. Sec. 4.) and in this opinion I have the sanction of M. Berthollet. (See *Ann. de Ch.* vol. 34, p. 73.*)

Learning, however, from Mr. Dalton, that he constantly employs nitrous gas in determining the purity of air, and with perfect satisfaction as to the accuracy of his results, I have obtained from him the following communication.

“ To use nitrous gas accurately in eudiometry, it is
“ only requisite to take both gases in a dilute state,
“ namely, containing three or four times their bulk of
“ azotic gas (which atmospheric air naturally does), or
“ of any other gas not acted upon by nitrous or oxy-
“ gen gases. In this case, if an excess of one gas be
“ used, the other is, in a few minutes, entirely taken up,
“ and in a constant proportion; whatsoever may be the
“ form of the vessel, or the manner of mixing the gases.
“ The proportion is 1 of oxygen to 1.7 of nitrous, so
“ that 10-27th of the diminution over water are oxy-
“ gen, and 17-27th nitrous gas. It is proper, as soon as
“ the greater part of the diminution has ensued, to
“ transfer the mixture through water into a graduated
“ vessel, without using any agitation.

“ If pure nitrous gas be admitted to pure oxygen gas
“ in a narrow eudiometer tube, so that the oxygen gas
“ is uppermost, the two unite very nearly in the same
“ uniform proportion as above. If, on the other hand,
“ the nitrous be the upper gas, a much less quantity of
“ it disappears, viz. 1.24 nitrous to 1 oxygen. If undi-
“ luted nitrous gas be admitted to pure oxygen gas in a
“ wide vessel over water, the whole effect takes place
“ immediately; and one measure of oxygen will condense
“ 3.4 nitrous gas.

“ To render this rule more intelligible, an example
“ may be necessary. Let 100 measures of common air
“ be admitted to 100 measures of a mixture of nitrous
“ gas with an equal proportion of azotic or hydrogen

* Since this paragraph was written, an improvement has been made in eudiometry, which will be described in the subsequent part of this section.

" gas. After standing a few minutes in the eudiometer, there will be found 144 measures. The loss 56 being divided by the common divisor, 2.7, gives 21 nearly for the oxygen gas present in 100 measures of common air."

(g) The generation of an acid, by the admixture of nitrous gas with common air or oxygen gas, may be shown by the following experiment. Paste a slip of litmus paper within a glass jar, near the bottom; and into the jar, filled with and inverted in water, pass as much nitrous gas, previously well washed, as will displace the water below the level of the paper. The colour of the litmus will remain unchanged; but, on passing up atmospheric air or oxygen gas, it will be immediately reddened. (N. 23.)

(h) That the peculiar acid, thus produced, is the nitrous, will appear from the following experiment. Into a jar, filled with and inverted in mercury, pass a small quantity of a solution of pure potash; and, afterward, measures of oxygen and nitrous gases, separately, and in proper proportion. On removing the solution from the jar, exposing it for some time to the atmosphere, and afterward evaporating it, crystals of nitrate of potash will be formed, a salt which is ascertained to be formed of potash and nitrous acid.

(i) Nitrous gas is absorbed by nitric acid, which, by this absorption, is considerably changed in its properties. —Pass the gas, as it issues from the materials that afford it, through colourless nitric acid. The acid will undergo successive changes of colour, till at last it will become orange-coloured and fuming. In this state it is called nitrous acid, because it contains a less proportion of oxygen than the colourless nitric acid.

According to Dr. Priestley, 100 parts of nitric acid, of the specific gravity of 14 to 10, absorb, in two days, 90 parts of nitrous gas. When about seven parts of gas have been absorbed, the acid acquires an orange colour; when 18 have been absorbed, it becomes green; and the whole quantity, which it is capable of condensing, changes it into a liquor, which emits an immense quantity of red fumes. The gas, thus absorbed, is mostly separated again on dilution with water.

(k) The nitrous gas, thus absorbed, is expelled again

by a gentle heat. This may be shown by gently heating the acid coloured in Expt. h till it again becomes limpid. In this experiment light should be excluded.

(l) Nitrous gas is decomposed by exposure to bodies that have a strong affinity for oxygen. Thus, iron filings decompose it, and become oxydized, affording a proof of the presence of oxygen in this gas.

During this process, water, ammonia, and nitrous oxide are generated. Sulphuret of potash, &c. have a similar effect.

(m) Nitrous gas is absorbed by the green sulphate and muriate of iron,* which do not absorb azotic gas. To ascertain, therefore, how much azotic gas a given quantity of nitrous gas contains, let it be exposed in a graduated tube over one of these solutions. This information is necessary, previously to deducing, from its effects on atmospheric air, the proportion of oxygen gas.

From the important use which is now made of this solution of nitrous gas in eudiometry, it may be proper to describe the mode of its preparation.

Dissolve as much of the green sulphate of iron in water as the water will take up, or dissolve iron filings in sulphuric acid, diluted with five or six parts of water, leaving an excess of the iron, in order to ensure the perfect saturation of the acid. Fill a wide-mouthed bottle with this solution, invert it in a cupful of the same, and into the inverted bottle receive the nitrous gas from nitric acid and quicksilver, shaking the inverted bottle frequently. The colour of this solution will change to black, and the production of gas and the agitation are to be continued, till the absorption can be carried no farther. The impregnated solution should be preserved in a number of small bottles, not holding more than an ounce each. The most commodious method of applying this solution, is by means of Dr. Hope's eudiometer, already described. (Chap. V. Sec. 4.)

(n) A very interesting experiment, affording a synthetic proof of the constitution of nitrous gas, we owe to Dr. Milner, of Cambridge †. In an earthen tube, about 30 inches long and 3-4th inch wide, open at both ends,

* For an account of these salts, see chap. xviii. sect. 6.

† Phil. Trans. 1782.

put as much coarsely-powdered manganese as is sufficient nearly to fill it. Let this be placed, horizontally, in a furnace, having two openings opposite to each other, (Fig. 40.) To one end of the earthen tube adapt a retort, containing a strong solution in water of pure ammonia, and to the other a bent glass tube, which may terminate in a two-necked empty bottle. To the other neck of the bottle, lute a glass tube, bent so as to convey any gas that may be produced, under the shelf of the pneumatic trough. Let a fire be kindled in the furnace; and, when the manganese may be supposed to be red-hot, drive over it the vapour of the ammonia. The alkali will be decomposed; its hydrogen, uniting with part of the oxygen which is combined with the manganese, will form water; while its azote, uniting with another portion of the oxygen, will constitute nitrous gas. The gas, thus generated, may be collected by the usual apparatus.

(e) Nitrous gas is stated, by Mr. Davy, to consist of 56 oxygen and 44 azote.

(f) Another fact, shewing the mutual relation of ammonia and of the compounds of azote, was discovered some years ago by Mr. Wm. Higgins.* Moisten some powdered tin (which is sold under this name by the druggists) with strong nitric acid; and, when the red fumes have ceased to arise, add some quick-lime or solution of pure potash. A strong smell of ammonia will be immediately produced.

In this experiment, the tin, at the same instant, attracts the oxygen both of the nitric acid and of the water. Hydrogen and azote are consequently set at liberty; and, before they have assumed the gaseous state, these two bases combine, and constitute ammonia. The ammonia, thus generated, unites with a portion of undecomposed nitric acid; and is disengaged from this combination by potash or lime, which render it evident to the smell.

* See his *Comparative View of the Phlogistic and Anaphlogistic Theories*, 2d edition, page 302, note.

SECT. III.

Gaseous Oxide of Azote—Nitrous Oxide of Davy.

I. This compound, also consisting of oxygen and azote, but in different proportions from those of nitrous gas, may be obtained by several processes.

(a) By exposing common nitrous gas for a few days to iron filings, or to various other bodies strongly attracting oxygen, this gas is changed into the nitrous oxide.

Some nicety and experience are required to suspend the decomposition before it has gone too far ; in which case azotic gas is obtained. The sulphite of potash, being incapable of decomposing nitrous oxide, is best adapted to the conversion of nitrous gas into that elastic fluid. The process, in all cases, may be suspended, when about two-thirds the original bulk of the gas are left.

(b) By dissolving zinc, or tin, in nitric acid, diluted with five or six times its weight of water. Zinc, during this solution, disengages nitrous oxide till the acid begins to exhibit a brownish colour, when the process must be suspended, as nitrous gas is then formed. But by neither of these processes is the gas obtained sufficiently pure for exhibiting its qualities. To procure it in a state of purity, the following process is the best adapted.

(c) To nitric acid, diluted with five or six parts of water, add carbonate of ammonia, till the acid is saturated. Then evaporate the solution ; and, to supply the waste of alkali, add, occasionally, a little more of the carbonate. Let the solution be evaporated by a very gentle heat. The salt obtained, when the solution has cooled, is next to be put into a glass retort, and distilled with a sand heat, not exceeding 440 Fahrenheit. The heat of an Argand's lamp is more than sufficient, and requires cautious regulation. The salt will presently liquefy, and must be kept gently simmering, avoiding violent ebullition. The gas may be collected over water, and allowed to stand a few hours (N. 24.) before it is used, during which time it will deposit a white cloud, and will become perfectly transparent.

A gazometer is best adapted for its reception ; because all danger is then avoided of an absorption of the water of the trough into the retort ; and because the gas

brought into contact with a much smaller surface of water, which has the property of absorbing a considerable proportion of the gas. On this account, water, which has been once used to confine the gas, may be kept for the same purpose.

The changes that take place, during the conversion of nitrate of ammonia into nitrous oxide, are the following: Nitric acid is composed of oxygen and nitrous gas; ammonia, of hydrogen and azote. In a high temperature, the nitrous gas combines with an additional dose of azote, and forms nitrous oxide; while the oxygen of the decomposed nitric acid unites with the hydrogen of the ammonia, and forms water.

The gas, thus obtained, was termed, by the Society of Dutch chemists, gaseous oxide of azote, but, for the sake of brevity, and as more conformable to the nomenclature of other compounds of azote, I shall use, with Mr. Davy, the name of nitrous oxide.*

In order to ascertain whether nitrous oxide be adulterated with either common air or oxygen gas, we may mix equal measures of the gas under examination, and of nitrous gas. If any diminution ensue, the presence of one of these may be suspected; and the amount will shew which of them is contained in it. Nitrous gas, however, is a much more common contamination; for it is generated, along with nitrous oxide, whenever the temperature of the salt is raised too high. Its presence may be detected, either by a diminution on the admixture of oxygen gas; or by an absorption being effected, on agitating the gas with a solution of green sulphate of iron, which has no action on pure nitrous oxide. (See also p. 159, *f*.)

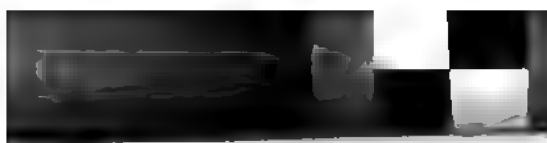
II. This gas has the following properties:

(a) A candle burns in it with a brilliant flame and crackling noise. Before its extinction, the white inner flame becomes surrounded with an exterior blue one.

(b) Phosphorus, introduced into it in a state of inflammation, burns with increased splendour.

Phosphorus, however, may be melted, and sublimed in this gas, without alteration. It may even be touched with a red-hot iron wire, without being inflamed; but

* For a full account of this gas, consult Mr. Davy's *Researches, Chemical and Philosophical*. London. Johnson, 1800.



when a wire, intensely heated, or made white-hot, is applied, the phosphorus burns, or rather detonates, with prodigious violence.

(c) Sulphur, introduced into it when burning with a feeble blue flame, is instantly extinguished; but when in a state of active inflammation, it burns with a vivid and beautiful rose-coloured flame.

(d) Red-hot charcoal burns in it more brilliantly than in the atmosphere.

(e) Iron wire burns in this gas with much the same appearance as in oxygen gas, but for a shorter period.

(f) Nitrous oxide is rapidly absorbed by water that has been previously boiled, about 1-30th the original bulk of the gas remaining uncondensed. A quantity of gas, equal to considerably more than half the bulk of the water, may be thus made to disappear. This property furnishes a good test of the purity of nitrous oxide; for the pure gas is almost entirely absorbed by boiled water, which has cooled without the access of air. The water employed should exceed the gas three or four times in bulk.

(g) Water, that has been saturated with this gas, gives it out again, unchanged, when heated.

(h) The impregnated water does not change blue vegetable colours.

(i) It has a distinctly sweet taste, and a faint, but agreeable odour.

(k) It is not diminished by admixture with either oxygen or nitrous gas.

(l) A mixture of this gas with hydrogen gas detonates loudly, on applying a lighted taper, or passing an electric spark.

When the proportion of hydrogen is nearly equal to that of nitrous oxide, or as 39 to 40, azotic gas only remains after the explosion; but when the proportion of hydrogen is smaller, nitric acid is also generated.

(m) Nitrous oxide is not absorbed by alkalis; but if it be brought into contact with them, when in a nascent state, or before it has assumed the condition of a gas, it then enters into combination with alkaline bases. Thus, when a mixture of sulphite of potash and pure potash is exposed to nitrous gas, the latter is disoxygenized by sulphite, and changed into nitrous oxide, which

with the alkali. We obtain, therefore, a mixture of sulphate of potash with a compound of nitrous oxide and alkali, the former of which may be separated by priority of crystallization. The latter is composed of about three parts of alkali, and one of nitrous oxide. It is soluble in water; has a caustic taste, of peculiar pungency; and converts vegetable blues to green. Powdered charcoal, mingled with it, and inflamed, burns with bright scintillations. The nitrous oxide is expelled from fixed alkalis by all acids, even by the carbonic.

(n) Animals, when wholly confined in this gas, die speedily.

(o) One of the most extraordinary properties of this gas is exhibited by its action on the human body, when received into the lungs. When thus employed, it does not prove fatal, because, when received into the lungs, it is mixed and diluted with the atmospherical air present in that organ. To administer the gas, it may be introduced into an oiled silk bag or clean bladder, furnished with a stop-cock, and may be breathed repeatedly from the bag and back again, as long as it will last. The sensations that are produced vary greatly in persons of different constitutions; but, in general, they are highly pleasurable, and resemble those attendant on the pleasant period of intoxication. Great exhilaration, an irresistible propensity to laughter, a rapid flow of vivid ideas, and an unusual fitness for muscular exertion, are the ordinary feelings it produces. These pleasant sensations, it must be added, are not succeeded, like those accompanying the grosser elevation from fermented liquors, by any subsequent depression of nervous energy.

(p) From the experiments of Mr. Davy, it appears that 100 parts, by weight, of this gas, contain 36.7 oxygen, and 63.3 azote, or, excluding decimals, 37 oxygen and 36 azote.

SECT. IV.

*Nitrates.*ART. I.—*Nitrate of Potash.**R.*

I. A direct synthetic proof of the composition of this salt may be obtained by saturating nitric acid with potash, either pure or in a carbonated state. The solution, on evaporation, yields crystals of nitrate of potash, or nitre.

For the purposes of experiment, however, the nitrate of potash, which may be met with in the shops, and which is an abundant product of nature, may be employed on account of its greater cheapness.

II. This salt has the following properties :

(a) It crystallizes in prismatic octahedrons, generally constituting six-sided prisms, terminated by two-sided summits.

(b) For solution, it requires seven times its weight of water at 60° of Fahrenheit ; and boiling water takes up its own weight.

These are the proportions assigned by Bergman ; but La Grange asserts, that of water, at the ordinary temperature, nitrate of potash requires only three or four times its weight for solution ; and half its weight of boiling water. (*Manuel*, I, 243.)

(c) By the application of a moderate heat it fuses, and being cast in moulds, forms what is called Sal Prunelle.

(d) If a red heat be applied, nitrate of potash is decomposed in consequence of the destruction of its acid. By distilling it in an earthen retort, or in a gun-barrel, oxygen gas may be obtained in great abundance, one pound of nitre yielding about 12,000 cubic inches, of sufficient purity for common experiments, but not for purposes of accuracy.

(e) Nitrate of potash, that has been made red-hot, seems to contain an acid less highly oxygenated than the common nitric acid, and having a weaker affinity for alkalis. For if acetic acid be poured on nitre that has been thus treated, the nitrous acid is expelled in

fumes, whereas common nitre is not at all affected by acetic acid.

(f) Nitrate of potash is rapidly decomposed by charcoal. This may be shown, by mixing two parts of powdered nitre with one of powdered charcoal, and setting fire to the mixture in an iron vessel under a chimney.—The products of this combustion, which may be collected by a proper apparatus, are carbonic acid and azotic gases. Part of the carbonic acid also remains attached to the residuary alkali, and may be obtained from it on adding a stronger acid.

This residue was termed, by the old chemists *clayssus* of nitre.

(g) Nitrate of potash is also decomposed by sulphur. Mix powdered nitre and sulphur, and throw the mixture, by a little at a time, into a red-hot crucible. The sulphur will unite with the oxygen of the nitric acid, and form sulphuric acid; which combining with the potash, will afford sulphate of potash. The production of the latter salt will be proved by dissolving the mass remaining in the crucible and crystallizing it, when a salt will be obtained exhibiting the characters described, Ch. xi. Sec. iv.

2. Mix a portion of sulphur with 1-6th or 1-8th its weight of nitrate of potash; (N. 25.) put the mixture into a tin cup, and raise it, by a proper stand, (fig. 25) a few inches above the surface of water, contained in a flat shallow dish. Set fire to the mixture, and cover it with a bell-shaped receiver. In this case, also, sulphuric acid will be formed; but it will not combine, as before, with the alkali of the nitre, which alkali is present in sufficient quantity to absorb only a part of the acid produced. The greater part of the acid will be condensed on the inner surface of the glass bell, and by the water, which will thus become intensely acid. The operation may be repeated three or four times, using the same portion of water. When the water is partly expelled, by evaporation in a glass dish, concentrated sulphuric acid remains, which has been formed by the union of the oxygen of the nitre, and that of the atmospherical air, with the sulphur submitted to experiment. By a process of this kind, but on a large scale, and in extensive leaden chambers, the sulphuric acid of commerce is prepared.—The dilute acid, resulting from the union of the condens-

ed vapour of the burning materials, with the stratum of water at the bottom of the chamber, is first boiled down in part in shallow leaden vessels, and is then transferred into glass retorts, where it is further concentrated by the continued application of heat.

(h) A mixture of three parts of powdered nitre, two of carbonate of potash, or common salt of tartar, and one part of sulphur, all accurately mixed together, forms the *fulminating powder*, which explodes with a loud noise, when laid on an iron heated below redness.

(i) A mixture of five parts of powdered nitre, one part of sulphur, and one of powdered charcoal, composes *gunpowder*. The materials must all be very finely powdered separately, then mixed up together, and beaten with a wooden pestle, a sufficient quantity of water being added to prevent an explosion. The mixture must afterward be granulated, by passing through sieves, and dried.

(k) Nitrate of potash is decomposed by sulphuric acid, which combines with the potash, and expels the nitric acid. Put into a glass retort, which may be either tubulated or not, four parts of nitrate of potash, reduced to a coarse powder, and pour upon it three parts of concentrated sulphuric acid. Apply a tubulated receiver, of large capacity, between which, and the retort, an adapter may be interposed; these junctures being luted with a mixture of pipe-clay, sifted sand, and cut tow or flax. —To the tubulure of the receiver, a glass tube may be fixed by means of the fat lute, and may terminate in another large receiver, containing a small quantity of water. If the operator wishes to collect the gaseous products also, this second receiver should be provided with a tubulure, to which a bent pipe may be luted, terminating under one of the inverted funnels in the shelf of the pneumatic trough. Apply heat to the retort, through the intervention of a sand bath. The first product that passes into the receiver, is generally of a red colour, and of a smoking quality. These appearances lessen more and more; and if the materials used were clean, the acid will come over pale, and even colourless. Afterwards it gradually re-assumes a red colour, and smoking property; which appearances go on increasing till the end of the operation; and the whole product, mingled together,

has either a yellow or an orange colour, according to the temperature employed.

In the large way, and for purposes of the arts, it is usual to substitute earthen or cast-iron retorts, made extremely thick, for those of glass. An earthen head is adapted, and this is connected with a range of proper condensers. The strength of the acid is varied also, by putting more or less water in the receiver.

Nitric acid, obtained by this process, is never perfectly pure. It contains, generally, both sulphuric and muriatic acids; the former of which is indicated by a white precipitate, on adding a solution of nitrate of barytes; and the latter, by a milkiness produced by nitrate of silver. The sulphuric acid may be separated, either by a second distillation from a portion of very pure nitre, equal in weight to 1-8th of that originally employed, or by adding nitrate of barytes; allowing the precipitate to settle; decanting the clear liquid, and distilling it. Muriatic acid is separated by the addition of nitrate of silver. An immediate milkiness ensues, and fresh additions must be made of nitrate of silver, as long as it occasions this appearance. Then allow the precipitate to subside; decant the clear liquid, and re-distil it; leaving 1-8th or 1-10th in the retort. The product will be pure nitric acid. Nitrate of lead may be substituted for nitrate of silver. (See Nich. Journ. XI. 134.)

The nitric acid may also be obtained free from muriatic acid, if a perfectly pure nitrate of potash be employed for distillation. This purification is, in a great measure, effected, by repeated solution of the nitre, in boiling distilled water, and crystallization. Finally, redissolve the crystals in warm distilled water, and add nitrate of silver as long as any precipitate appears. Allow this to settle, or separate it by filtration. The next product of crystals will be perfectly pure. The precipitated silver must not be thrown away, but must be washed with distilled water, dried, and preserved for the recovery of the silver, by a process to be hereafter described.

Nitric acid obtained in this manner is deficient also in another respect; for it is not perfectly oxygenated, but holds in solution a considerable quantity of nitrous gas, and hence is in the state rather of nitrous than nitric acid. To convert the former into the latter, put the acid

into a retort, to which a receiver is applied, the two vessels not being luted, but joined merely by paper. Apply a very gentle heat for several hours to the retort, changing the receiver as soon as it becomes filled with red vapours. The nitrous gas will thus be expelled, and the acid will remain in the retort in a state of purity, and as limpid and colourless as water. It must be kept in a bottle secluded from the light.

One hundred parts of nitrate of potash, according to La Grange, yield by this process 43 of acid, or, according to my experience, above 50. This, however, is not the whole of what was contained in the salt: for a part is decomposed by the temperature necessary to the operation. Accordingly, a large quantity of oxygen gas is disengaged during the distillation, and may be collected by an obvious addition to the apparatus.

In the retort, there remains a compound of potash with more sulphuric acid than is essential to its saturation, or a super-sulphate of potash. On submitting this to a pretty strong heat, the excess of sulphuric acid is expelled; and the residue, dissolved and evaporated, affords crystallized sulphate of potash.

ART. II.—*Nitrate of Soda.*

I. This salt may be formed, by saturating carbonate of soda with nitric acid; or by distilling common salt with three-fourths its weight of nitric acid. When the former process is adopted, the solution must be evaporated, till a pellicle appears on its surface, and then allowed to cool. Crystals will be forming, having the shape of rhomboids, or rhomboidal prisms.

II. These crystals have a taste like that of saltpetre, but more intense. They are soluble in three parts of water at 60°, and in less than an equal weight of boiling water. They attract moisture from the atmosphere. In other respects, in the means by which their decomposition is effected and its results, they agree with the nitrate of potash.

ART. III.—*Nitrate of Ammonia.*

I. The most simple mode of preparing this salt is by adding carbonate of ammonia to dilute nitric acid, till saturation has taken place. If the liquor be evaporated, by a heat between 70° and 100° , to a certain extent, it shoots, on cooling, into crystals, having the shape of six-sided prisms, terminated by long six-sided pyramids. Evaporated at the temperature of 212° , it yields, on cooling, thin fibrous crystals; and when the evaporation is carried so far, that the salt immediately concretes on a glass rod by cooling, it then forms a compact and shapeless mass.

II. The solubility of this salt varies, according to the temperature in which it has been formed. It requires twice its weight of water, when in crystals, for solution, or half its weight of boiling water. It deliquesces, in all its forms, when exposed to the atmosphere.

III. The most important property of this salt is that already described, viz. of yielding, when decomposed by heat, the nitrous oxide. One pound of the compact kind gives, by careful decomposition, nearly five cubic feet of gas, or rather more than 34 doses; so that the expence, estimating the salt at 5s. 10d. the pound, is about 2d. for each dose.

IV. In a temperature of 600 this salt explodes, and is entirely decomposed. Hence it was formerly called *nitrum flammans*.

V. Its composition varies according to the mode of its preparation, and is stated by Mr. Davy as follows:

Prismatic.	Fibrous.	Compact.
69.5	72.5	74.5 acid
18.4	19.3	19.8 ammonia
12.1	8.2	5.7 water
<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
100	100	100

ART. IV.—*Nitrate of Barytes.*

I. Nitrate of barytes may be prepared, by dissolving

either the artificial or native carbonate in nitric acid, diluted with 8 or 10 parts of water. If the artificial carbonate be employed, it should be previously well washed with distilled water, till the washings cease to precipitate nitrate of silver. A solution of nitrate of barytes, mixed with one of silver, should continue perfectly transparent. On evaporation, it yields regular octohedrons, often adhering to each other in the form of stars ; and sometimes it is obtained in small brilliant plates. It requires for solution 12 times its weight of water at 60° , and three or four parts of boiling water. It is not altered by exposure to the air. In a red heat, its acid is decomposed, and the earth remains pure. This furnishes another method of procuring pure barytes ; but the heat must not be carried too far, otherwise it is apt to vitrify with the crucible. The residue, on the addition of water, dissolves with great heat and noise, and the solution, on cooling, yields crystals of pure barytes.

ART. V.—*Nitrate of Strontites.*

This salt may be obtained in the same manner as the nitrate of barytes, with which it agrees in most properties. The solubility of its crystals, however, differs considerably ; for they are dissolved by their own weight of water at 60° , or by little more than half their weight of boiling water. When applied to the wick of a candle, or added to boiling alcohol, they communicate to the flame a deep blood-red colour. They are decomposed by a high temperature, and afford pure strontitic earth.

ART. VI.—*Nitrate of Lime.*

This salt is found abundantly in the cement of old buildings, which have been long inhabited by man, or other animals. To prepare it artificially, nitric acid, diluted with five or six parts of water, may be saturated with carbonate of lime. When this solution is boiled down to the consistence of syrup, and exposed in a cool place, long prismatic crystals are formed, resembling, in their disposition, bundles of needles diverging from a

common centre. These crystals are readily soluble in water, of which, at 60° , they require two parts, and boiling water dissolves an equal weight. They deliquesce speedily, when exposed to the air; and are decomposed at the temperature of ignition.

When a solution of nitrate of lime is evaporated to dryness in an earthen vessel, then fused for five or ten minutes in a crucible, and poured, while in fusion, into an iron pot previously heated, the congealed mass forms *Baldwin's phosphorus*. It must be broken into pieces, and preserved in a well-stopped vial. These pieces, after having been exposed to the sun for a few hours, emit in the dark a beautiful white light, affording one variety of solar phosphorus.

ART. VII.—*Nitrate of Magnesia.*

This compound may be prepared, by dissolving carbonate of magnesia in diluted nitric acid. The solution, when evaporated, yields crystals in the shape of prisms, with four oblique faces truncated at their summits. Most commonly, however, it forms a shapeless mass, consisting of an immense number of small needle-shaped crystals, crossing each other irregularly. These crystals deliquesce in the air, and are soluble in half their weight of water. When exposed to the heat of ignition, they fuse; a few bubbles of oxygen gas first escape; and the nitric acid then passes undecomposed.

ART. VIII.—*Nitrate of Alumine.*

This salt is but little known. It may be formed by the solution of fresh precipitated alumine, which has been well-washed with distilled water, but not dried, in diluted nitric acid, with the assistance of heat. The solution, which has always an excess of acid, after evaporation, crystallizes in thin ductile plates. The crystals are extremely soluble; and, on the application of a high temperature, abandon their acid. They are decomposed by most alkalies and earths. Pure potash, added in excess, re-dissolves the precipitate.

ART. IX.—*Nitrate of Glucine.*

The nitrate of glucine is a sweet-tasted salt, which cannot be brought to crystallize. When evaporated to dryness, it rapidly absorbs moisture from the atmosphere. It is soluble in alcohol. A high temperature decomposes it, without effecting its previous fusion.

ART. X.—*Nitrate of Zircon.*

The nitric acid dissolves, but cannot be saturated with, fresh precipitated zircon. The solution has always an excess of acid. When evaporated, it forms a yellowish transparent mass, extremely tenacious and viscid, and difficultly dried. It has a styptic astringent taste, and leaves on the tongue a thick substance, in consequence of its partial decomposition by the saliva. This dry nitrate is extremely soluble. The solution is decomposed by sulphuric acid, and by carbonate of ammonia, which throw down a precipitate soluble in an excess of the acid, or of the carbonate. Tincture of galls forms a white precipitate, which is soluble in an excess of the tincture.

ART. XI.—*Nitrate of Yttria.*

May be prepared by dissolving yttria in nitric acid. The solution has a sweetish astringent taste; and, in most properties, resembles nitrate of glucine. It can scarcely be obtained in crystals; and if too great a heat be applied during evaporation, the salt becomes soft, assumes the appearance of honey, and concretes, on cooling, into a hard stony mass. Exposed to the air, it attracts moisture, and is resolved into a liquid.

SECT. V.

Nitrites.

THE direct combination of nitrous acid with alkalis and earths cannot be effected: For this acid, consisting of nitric acid with a redundancy of nitrous gas, is decomposed during all these combinations, the nitrous gas escapes, and the result is a compound of nitric acid with the base employed. The only mode of obtaining nitrites, is to deprive the acid, contained in the nitrates, of part of its oxygen, by exposure for a short time to the temperature of ignition. This method, it must be obvious, cannot be used with those nitrates that abandon their acid on the application of heat, or which, like nitrate of ammonia, are more completely decomposed.

Nitrate of potash, after fusion in a crucible, becomes a nitrite of that alkali. It has a smell, when powdered, of nitrous gas. When diluted nitric acid, or even acetic acid, is poured upon it, vapours of nitrous acid are disengaged; and hence it appears, that the affinity of this acid for its base is weakened by dis-oxygenation; for no such effect arises on adding these acids to the nitrate. The solution of the salt in water changes the syrup of violets to green. Its other properties are little known.

CHAP. XIII.

MURIATIC ACID, AND ITS COMBINATIONS WITH
ALKALIES.

SECT. I.

Muriatic Acid.

I. THE muriatic acid, in its purest form, exists in the state of a gas, permanent over mercury only. For exhi-

biting its properties, therefore, a mercurial apparatus is absolutely necessary. (N. 26.)

To obtain muriatic acid gas, let the tubulated gas bottle (Plate II. fig. 17.) be about one-fourth, or one-third, filled with muriate of soda, (common salt) which has been dried, on an earthen dish or plate, in an oven. To this adapt the acid-holder, filled with concentrated sulphuric acid; and let the aperture of the bent pipe terminate under a jar filled with and inverted in quicksilver. Open the communication between the acid and the salt, by turning the cock; and immediately on the contact of these two bodies, an immense quantity of muriatic acid gas will be disengaged. The first portions, that come over, may be allowed to escape, by holding the gas bottle under a chimney; because they are contaminated by the admixture of the common air present in the bottle. The subsequent portions may be preserved for use; and the pure gas will exhibit the following qualities.

(a.) It has a very pungent smell; and is sufficiently caustic to blister the skin, when applied to it for some time.

(b.) When brought into contact with common air, it occasions a white cloud. This is owing to its union with the moisture always present in the atmosphere.

(c.) It extinguishes a lighted candle. Before the flame goes out, the upper part of it assumes a greenish hue, the cause of which has not yet been explained. A white vapour also surrounds the extinguished wick, owing to the combination of water, produced by the combustion of the candle, with the muriatic acid gas.

(d.) It is heavier than common air, in the proportion of 173 to 100.

(e.) It effects the liquefaction of a piece of ice, almost as rapidly as a red-hot coal.

(f.) It is very rapidly absorbed by water. A drop or two of water, admitted to a large jar full of this gas, causes the whole of it instantly to disappear. According to Mr. Kirwan, an ounce-measure troy of water absorbs 800 cubical inches (i. e. 421 times its bulk, or its own weight) of muriatic acid gas; and the water, by this absorption, is increased about one-third its original volume. Dr. Thomson's experiments indicate a still larger absorption, viz. 515 cubic inches, or 308 grains by one cubic

inch, equal to 252 grains, of water, at 60° Fahrenheit; the barometer standing at 29.4.

(g.) Muriatic acid gas is not decomposed by being transmitted over red-hot charcoal, nor by a succession of electrical shocks. The action of electricity, however, evolves a small portion of hydrogen gas, proceeding from the water which the acid gas holds in combination. From an estimate, founded on this experiment, I have inferred, that 100 cubic inches, or 60 grains of muriatic acid gas, hold in combination 1.4 grain of water.—Phil. Trans. 1800.

To prepare the liquid muriatic acid, the following process may be employed.

Into a tubulated retort, placed in a sand bath, put eight parts of dried muriate of soda; and, to the tubulure, lute the bent tube (fig. 25. *a*) with fat lute. To the neck of the retort, affix a tubulated receiver (fig. 30. *b*) by means of the same lute; and to the aperture of this adapt a tube, twice bent at right angles, and furnished with Welter's contrivance for preventing absorption, the longer leg of which terminates beneath the surface of water contained in a two-necked bottle. From the other neck, let a second right-angled pipe proceed; and this may terminate in a similar manner, in a second bottle containing water. Let the junctures be all carefully luted; and, when they are sufficiently hardened, pour very gradually through the bent tube five parts by weight of strong sulphuric acid, making the additions at several distant intervals. On each affusion of the acid a large quantity of muriatic acid gas will be liberated, and will be absorbed by the water of the first bottle, till this has become saturated. It will then pass on to the second bottle, and be there absorbed. The water employed may amount to half the weight of the salt, and may be equally distributed between the two bottles. These it is better to surround with cold water, or, still preferably, with ice or snow; because the condensation of the gas evolves considerable heat, which prevents the water from attaining its full impregnation. When the whole of the sulphuric acid has been added, and the gas no longer issues, let a fire be lighted in the furnace, beneath the sand bath, removing the bent tube *a*, and substituting a well-ground glass stopper. This will renew the production of gas; and the temperature must be preserved, as long as gas continues to be evolved.

At this period it is necessary to keep the luting, which connects the retort and receiver, perfectly cool; otherwise it will be apt to melt. To this juncture, indeed, I prefer the application of the clay and sand lute; but this requires some address. Towards the close of the process, a dark-coloured liquid is condensed in the first receiver, consisting of a mixture of sulphuric and muriatic acids. When nothing more comes over, the operation may be suspended, and the liquid in the two bottles must be preserved in bottles with ground-stoppers. It consists of liquid muriatic acid.

The liquid muriatic acid may also be obtained by diluting the sulphuric acid with the water necessary for the condensation of the gas, and adding the dilute acid, when cold, to the salt in the retort. To the retort, an adopter may be luted with the clay and sand lute; and this may terminate in a large tubulated receiver, from the aperture of which a right-angled Welter's tube proceeds, and is conveyed beneath a few ounces of water, contained in a two-necked bottle. A fire must then be lighted under the sand-bath, and continued as long as any liquid comes over. The adopter and receiver must be kept cool, by the constant application of moistened cloths.

The acid formed in this mode has the specific gravity only of about 1170; but by the preceding process, and especially when the bottles are surrounded by ice or snow, it approaches that of 1500. It possesses the following characters.

1. It emits white suffocating fumes. These consist of muriatic acid gas, which becomes visible by contact with the moisture of the air.

2. When heated in a retort, or gas-bottle, muriatic acid gas is disengaged, and may be collected over mercury.

3. Liquid muriatic acid is not decomposed by the contact of charcoal, essential oils, or other combustible bodies.

4. When diluted with water, no remarkable elevation of temperature is produced.

5. In a perfectly pure state it is quite colourless; but it has frequently a yellowish hue. This may proceed, either from a portion of oxygenized muriatic acid, or of

muriate of iron, but, I believe most commonly of the latter. This colour is instantly destroyed by a few drops of muriate of tin.

6. Muriatic acid combines readily with alkalies, and with most of the earths, both in their pure and carbonated states.

SECT. II.

Muriates.

ART. I.—*Muriate of Potash.*

Muriate of potash may be obtained by saturating muriatic acid with carbonate of potash, and evaporating the solution till the salt crystallizes. These crystals have a cubical shape, and a bitter, disagreeable taste; they dissolve in three times their weight of water, at 60°, and in a rather less proportion of boiling water. They undergo little change when exposed to the air; they decrepitate when thrown on the fire, but abandon only a small portion of their acid.

ART. II.—*Muriate of Soda.*

Muriate of soda is that well known salt, now become a necessary ingredient in the food of man, and of great utility in several of the arts.

I. Its composition may be proved by the direct union of soda with muriatic acid.

But for purposes of experiment the common salt may be employed, which is to be found in the shops.† This may be purified, by adding to a solution of it in water a solution of carbonate of soda, as long as any milkiness ensues; filtering the solution, and evaporating it till it crystallizes.

II. Its qualities are as follow:

1. It crystallizes in regular cubes, which, when the

† Bay-salt, or fishery salt, is the purest form of common salt.

salt is pure, are unchanged by exposure to the air. The common salt of the shops, however, acquires an increase of weight, in consequence of the absorption of moisture by the impurities which it contains.

2. It requires, for solution, twice and a half its weight of water, at 60° of Fahrenheit, and hot water takes up very little more. Hence its solution crystallizes, not like that of nitre, by cooling, but by evaporation.

3. When heated gradually it fuses, and forms, when cold, a solid compact mass.

4. If suddenly heated, as by throwing it on red-hot coals, it decrepitates.

5. It is not decomposed when ignited in contact with inflammable substances.

6. When mixed with powdered charcoal or sulphur, and fused in a crucible, it does not undergo any decomposition or essential change; because the muriatic acid, if it contain any oxygen (which has not yet been proved), holds that basis more strongly combined than it is attracted by combustible bodies.

7. It is decomposed by the carbonate of potash, the alkali of which combines with the muriatic acid of the salt, and the carbonic acid is transferred to the soda.—Hence we obtain muriate of potash and carbonate of soda. A process for effecting this decomposition, on a large scale, is described by Westrumb, in Crell's Journal, English translation, ii, 127.

8. It is decomposed by the sulphuric acid in the mode already described. Nitric acid also separates the muriatic acid.

ART. III.—*Muriate of Ammonia.* (N. 27.)

1. If equal measures of ammoniacal gas and muriatic acid gas be mixed together, over mercury, they are immediately condensed, a white cloud is formed, and a solid substance is deposited on the sides of the vessel.

This is the muriate of ammonia.

For the purposes of experiment, it may be procured in the shops, under the name of sal-ammoniac.

Its properties are as follow :

(a) It is volatilized, without being liquefied or decomposed, and hence may be sublimed.

(b) It is readily soluble in water, three parts and a half of which, at 60° , take up one of the salt. During its solution much caloric is absorbed. In boiling water it is still more soluble; and the solution, on cooling, shoots into regular crystals.

(c) It slightly attracts moisture from the air.

(d) On the addition of a solution of pure potash, or pure soda, the alkali is disengaged, as is evinced by the pungent smell that arises on the mixture of these two bodies, though perfectly inodorous when separate.

(e) It is also decomposed by barytes, strontites, lime, and magnesia.

For the purpose of separating the volatile alkali, and obtaining it in a liquid form, lime is generally employed. Two parts of powdered and sifted lime are to be mixed with one of muriate of ammonia, and put into a retort, the neck of which is to be luted (with slips of moistened bladder, bound down by string), to a tubulated receiver. (fig. 31, a.) From the other opening of the receiver, a right-angled tube, with Welter's addition (fig. 31, b), is to proceed, and to terminate beneath the surface of water, contained in a two-necked bottle (c). This bottle is to be connected, by a second right-angled tube, with another similar bottle (d), containing (as should the first also), a quantity of water, equal in weight to one-fourth that of the muriate of ammonia. The decomposition is effected by heat; and the gas is absorbed by the water contained in the bottles, which should be surrounded by ice or snow. The water acquires a strong smell, and has its specific gravity diminished, when fully impregnated, to 09.684. This watery solution, when heated in a gas bottle, gives up its ammonia, which passes over in an aëri-form state, and may be received over quicksilver.

A solution of ammonia, in water, may also be obtained, as follows: Slack two parts of quicklime, with two of water; add to this, when cold, one part of muriate of ammonia, and six parts of water. Stir the mixture, and transfer it into a retort; lute on a receiver; and separate, by distillation, one part of liquid. The former process, however, is incomparably the best.

When a mixture of one part of powdered muriate of

ammonia with two of powdered carbonate of lime (chalk), both perfectly free from moisture, is distilled together in a retort, a solid white substance condenses on the inner surface of the receiver. This is the carbonate of ammonia; and the process now described is that by which, with the substitution of proper subliming vessels, the carbonate of ammonia is prepared for sale.

ART. IV.—*Muriate of Barytes*

Is best prepared, by dissolving either the artificial or native carbonate in diluted muriatic acid; or, if neither of these can be had, the sulphuret. The iron and lead, which are occasionally dissolved, along with the barytes, may be separated by the addition of a small quantity of liquid ammonia, or by boiling and stirring the solution in contact with a little lime. When filtered and evaporated, it yields regular crystals, which have most commonly the shape of tables, bevelled at the edges, or of eight-sided pyramids, applied base to base. They dissolve in five parts of water, at 60° , or in a still smaller quantity of boiling water; and also in alcohol. They are not altered by exposure to the atmosphere; nor are they decomposed, except partially, by a high temperature. The sulphuric acid separates the muriatic; and the salt is also decomposed by alkaline carbonates and sulphates.

ART. V.—*Muriate of Strontites*

may be obtained by following the same process as that employed in preparing the barytic salt. The solution affords long slender hexagonal prisms, which are soluble in two parts of water, at 60° ; and to almost any amount in boiling water. In a very moist atmosphere they deliquesce. They dissolve in alcohol, and give a blood-red colour to its flame.

ART. VI.—*Muriate of Lime.*

This salt may be prepared by dissolving carbonate of lime in muriatic acid, or by washing off the soluble part of the mass, which remains after the distillation of the solution of pure ammonia from muriate of ammonia and lime.

The solution crystallizes in six-sided striated prisms, terminated by very sharp pyramids. If it be evaporated to the consistence of a syrup, and exposed in a temperature of 32°, it forms a compact mass, composed of bundles of needle-shaped crystals, crossing each other confusedly.

The crystals dissolve in half their weight of cold water, and to an unlimited extent in boiling water, being, in fact, soluble in their water of crystallization.—They deliquesce rapidly in the air, and enter into fusion when heated. If fused in a crucible, and treated in the same manner as the nitrate of lime, they yield a solar phosphorus, called, from its discoverer, *Homburg's Phosphorus*. When mingled with snow, they produce intense cold, as has already been described.

ART. VII.—*Muriate of Magnesia.*

This is also a deliquescent and difficultly crystallized salt. It has an intensely bitter taste; is soluble in its own weight of water, or in five parts of alcohol. Unlike the preceding minerals, it is decomposed by ignition in a high temperature.

The muriates of magnesia and lime are generally contained in muriate of soda, and impart to that salt its deliquescent property. They impair, too, its power of preserving food. They are also ingredients of sea-water.

ART. VIII.—*Muriate of Alumine*

may be formed by dissolving fresh precipitated alumine in muriatic acid; but the acid is always in excess. It is

scarcely possible to obtain this salt in crystals ; for, by evaporation, it assumes the state of a thick jelly. It is extremely soluble in water, and deliquescent when dry. In a high temperature it abandons its acid entirely.

ART. IX.—*Muriate of Glucine.*

This salt is little known. Like all the salts of glucine, it has a sweet taste, and crystallizes more readily than the nitrate.

ART. X.—*Muriate of Zircon.*

Fresh precipitated zircon is readily dissolved by muriatic acid. The compound is colourless ; has an astringent taste ; and furnishes, by evaporation, small needle-shaped crystals, which lose their transparency in the air. It is very soluble in water and in alcohol. It is decomposed by heat, and by the saliva of the mouth. The gallic acid, poured into the solution, precipitates, if it be free from iron, a white powder. Carbonate of ammonia gives a precipitate, which is re-dissolved by an excess of the carbonate.

ART. XI.—*Muriate of Yttria.*

This compound has a striking resemblance to nitrate of yttria. Like that salt it dries with difficulty, and attracts moisture from the air. It does not crystallize, when evaporated, but forms a jelly.

B. CHAP. XIV.

OXYGENIZED MURIATIC ACID, AND ITS COMPOUNDS.

SECT. I.

Oxygenized Muriatic Acid.

1. This acid may be formed by either of the following processes :

1. Into a stoppered retort introduce eight ounces of liquid muriatic acid, and four ounces of finely powdered manganese, and apply the heat of a lamp. A gas will be produced, which may be received over water in the usual manner. From the foregoing materials about 160 cubical inches of gas may be obtained.

2. Mix eight ounces of muriate of soda (common salt) with three ounces of powdered manganese ; put them into a stoppered retort, and pour on them four ounces of sulphuric acid, diluted previously with four ounces of water, and which has been suffered to cool after dilution. On applying a gentle heat, gas will be produced, as in 1. As the gas is absorbed by contact with water, though not rapidly, it should be received, when it is intended to be kept, into bottles filled with, and inverted in, water, and provided with ground stoppers. The stoppers must be introduced under water, while the bottle remains inverted.

3. To an ounce measure of liquid muriatic acid, contained in a gas-bottle, add three or four drachms of a salt, which will presently be described, the hyper-oxygenized muriate of potash. If the acid be very concentrated, gas will be evolved without the application of heat, and, when it has ceased to be generated, the production will

be renewed by a gentle heat, such as that obtained by immersing the gas-bottle in a vessel of warm water. Receive the gas into bottles, furnished with extremely well ground stoppers; and, when they are full, put the stopper into its place, and invert the bottles, with their mouths downwards, in mercury.

As this gas is rapidly absorbed by cold water, the water of the receiving trough should be of the temperature of between 80° and 90° Fahrenheit; and the gas should remain, as short a time as possible before use, in contact with water. Mercury is not adapted for its reception, because on this metal the gas exerts a considerable action.

II. Oxygenized muriatic acid gas has the following properties:

(a) It has a deep yellow colour.

(b) It has a pungent and suffocating smell. In experiments on this gas, great care should be taken that it does not escape, in any considerable quantity, into the apartment, as its action on the lungs is extremely injurious and oppressive.

(c) By a temperature of 40° , it is reduced into a liquid form, and is condensed on the sides of the vessel. Hence some chemists have contended, that it should be classed among vapours, and not among gases.

When a receiver, filled with this gas, is surrounded by snow, or pounded ice, the gas forms on its surface a solid concretion, of a yellowish colour, resembling, in its ramifications, the ice which is deposited on the surface of windows during a frosty night. By a moderate increase of heat, such as to 50° Fahrenheit, this crust melts into a yellowish oily liquid, which, on a farther elevation of temperature, passes to the state of a gas.

(d) The oxygenized muriatic acid exerts powerful effects on various combustible bodies, both aëriform, liquid, and solid.

1. Let a vial, provided with a well ground stopper, be filled with a mixture of hydrogen, and oxy-muriatic gas, in the proportion of three of the former to four of the latter. Put the stopper into its place, and keep the bottle 24 hours, inverted with its mouth under water. On withdrawing the stopper, nearly the whole of the gas will have disappeared; and the remainder will be absorbed by the contact of water. In this experiment, the oxygen of the

acid gas combines with the hydrogen, and forms water; and the acid returns to the state of common muriatic acid.

2. Mingle, in the detonating tube, (fig. 28. or 29.) three measures of hydrogen gas with four of oxygenized muriatic gas. When an electric spark is passed through the mixture, a detonation will ensue, and nearly the whole will be absorbed. The proportion of hydrogen and pure oxy-muriatic gases, required for mutual saturation, according to Mr. Cruickshank, is 3 of the former to $3\frac{1}{2}$ of the latter.

3. Both the foregoing experiments may be repeated, with the substitution of carburetted hydrogen gas from moistened charcoal, from distilled coal, or from stagnant water. A larger proportion of the oxygenized acid, however, must be used, viz. three or four measures to one of the combustible gas. In this case, also, the diminution is not complete; for there remains a quantity of carbonic acid gas, which may be absorbed by lime liquor. If a proportion of oxy-muriatic gas, less than what is required for saturation, be fired with any of these gases, there is an abundant precipitation of charcoal.

4. The carbonic oxide is converted, by contact with the oxy-muriatic gas, into carbonic acid. Mix 2 measures of the carbonic oxide with two 2-3ds of the oxygenized gas; and allow them to stand, for 24 hours, in a bottle which is entirely filled by the mixture. On withdrawing the stopper at this period under water, the water will rush in, and will fill two-thirds of the bottle. The remaining one-third is carbonic acid gas, absorbable by lime water. It is remarkable, that a mixture of these two gases cannot be set on fire by the electric spark.

5. The olefiant gas exhibits, when mixed with oxy-muriatic gas, a very singular appearance. It is diminished in bulk, as rapidly as oxygen gas is by nitrous gas, and a thin film of oil forms on the surface of the water. The proportions required, for complete condensation, are $2\frac{1}{2}$ measures of the olefiant to 3 of the oxygenized gas. This phenomenon is not perfectly understood.

6. Oxy-muriatic gas exerts no action on azotic gas; but nitrous gas is condensed by it, in the same manner as by oxygen gas.

7. When mixed with sulphuretted hydrogen gas, it

occasions a condensation, and a precipitation of sulphur. It condenses sulphurous acid gas into sulphuric acid.

8. Phosphorus introduced into the oxygenized acid gas, takes fire spontaneously, and burns vehemently.

9. Sulphur is not inflamed by it; but a piece of sulphur fastened to the end of a glass rod, and confined in the gas, is slowly oxygenized, and drops down in a liquid form.

By passing streams of this gas through flowers of sulphur, Dr. Thomson obtained a new combination of oxide of sulphur with muriatic acid, which he terms sulphuretted muriatic acid—(Elements, 2d edit. IV. 763.) An account of the properties of this substance may be seen as above, or in the 6th volume of Nicholson's Journal.

10. The charcoal of beech-wood, when finely powdered, and perfectly dry, is inflamed by this gas. So also is the pyrophorus of Homberg.

11. Almost every metal, in a state of minute division, takes fire spontaneously, and burns in this gas. The very malleable metals, such as gold, silver, &c. which can be reduced to extremely thin leaves, are best applied to the gas in this state. Others, as iron, zinc, copper, &c. must be introduced in the state of fine filings. The most readily oxidized metals burn with the greatest brilliancy. The proportion is about 40 grains of each metal to 40 cubic inches of gas; and, into the bottom of the receiver a little sand may be poured, to prevent it from being broken.

Metallic antimony burns with a very brilliant white flame, and throws out sparks. Arsenic exhibits a fine green or blue flame, attended with sparks, and a dense white smoke; bismuth, a blueish flame; nickel, a yellowish white one; cobalt, a blueish white; zinc, a white flame and sparks; tin, a blueish white light; lead, a clear white flame; copper, a red and slowly spreading light; and iron, a bright red light. In all these experiments, the temperature of the gas should not fall short of 70° ; and, to ensure their success, it should be prepared by the third process.

(c) The oxygenized muriatic gas destroys all vegetable colours. This may be shewn by passing into it, through water, a piece of cloth, or of paper, stained with litmus, the colour of which will speedily disappear. Hence the application of this gas to the purpose of bleaching. Its

efficacy, in this mode, may be seen by confining in it a pattern of unbleached calico.

(f.) This gas is absorbed by water ; slowly, if allowed to stand over it quiescent, but rapidly when agitated.

The best method of effecting the impregnation of water with this gas, is by means of a Woulfe's apparatus, the bottles of which should be surrounded by ice-cold water. The precise bulk of the gas, which water is capable of absorbing, is not ascertained. According to the proportions stated by Berthollet, 1000 grains of water, at the temperature of 43° Fahrenheit, take up 1073 grains of the gas, and acquire the specific gravity of 1003.

(g) The watery solution, if perfectly free from common muriatic acid, has not the usual taste of an acid, but an astringent one. Its purity from the latter acid may be ascertained by a solution of nitrate of mercury, which is precipitated by the common, but not by the oxygenized acid.

(h) The watery solution acquires the colour and peculiar smell of the gas, and has a similar property of discharging vegetable colours. Hence it may be employed in bleaching.

That its action in bleaching is attended with the decomposition of the acid, and the deprivation of its oxygen, may be ascertained by examining a portion of the liquid, by means of which several patterns of unbleached calico have been successively whitened. The liquor will be found almost entirely to have lost its smell, and to precipitate nitrate of mercury abundantly.

(i) When the watery solution is exposed to a temperature a little above that of freezing water, the gas, which is combined with it, separates in the form of a liquid, heavier than water.

(k) The oxygenized acid is not decomposed by the temperature of boiling water ; for it may be raised in distillation, and again condensed without change.

(l) When this solution is exposed to the direct rays of the sun, the oxygenized acid is decomposed ; its oxygen escapes in the form of a gas, and it is reduced to the state of common muriatic acid. The oxygen gas may be collected, by exposing the solution in a gas-bottle furnished with a bent tube, which terminates in the pneumato-chemical apparatus.

(m) The oxygenized muriatic acid combines with alkalis, and forms peculiar compounds.

SECT. II.

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*Hyper-oxygenized Muriates.*ART. I.—*Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Potash.*

The properties of this salt were discovered by Berthollet. It may be formed by passing the oxygenized muriatic acid gas, as it proceeds from the mixture of muriate of soda, sulphuric acid, and manganese, through a solution of caustic potash. (N. 28.) This may be done by means of Woulfe's apparatus, using only one three-necked bottle in addition to the balloon. The tube, which is immersed in the alkaline solution, should be at least half-an-inch in diameter, to prevent its being choked up by any crystals that may form. The solution, when saturated with the gas, may be gently evaporated, and the first products only of crystals are to be reserved for use; for the subsequent products consist of common muriate of potash only.—Now, since the gas, when it first came into contact with the alkaline solution, was purely oxygenized muriatic acid, it follows that a part of this acid must have been dis-oxygenized during the absorption, and have returned back to the state of common muriatic acid. Let us suppose the oxygenized acid, when first presented to the alkaline solution, to be divided into two portions; one of these gives up its excess of oxygen to the other half, returns to the state of common muriatic acid, and, combining with the alkali, forms muriate of potash.—The latter portion, therefore, is oxygenized acid, *plus* a certain quantity of oxygen; and this, uniting with another portion of alkali, forms a salt, which Mr. Chenevix has termed hyper-oxygenized muriate. Strictly speaking, simple oxygenized muriates do not exist; for, in all this class of salts, the acid contains 65 per cent of oxygen more than in the state of common muriatic acid; whereas, the oxygenized acid contains only 16 per cent. in addition. It might be expected that a stronger acid,

such as the sulphuric, would expel from these salts the hyper-oxygenized acid in the form of gas; but this acid, by the temperature necessary for its liberation, is partially decomposed, and again returns nearly to the state of oxygenized acid.

The reader, who wishes for farther information on this subject, is referred to a masterly paper of Mr. Chenevix, in the *Phil. Trans.* 1801; reprinted in Nicholson's 8vo *Journal*, vol. 1. and in the *Phil. Mag.*

The hyper-oxygenized muriate of potash has the following qualities:

(a) It has the form of shining hexaedral laminæ, or rhomboidal plates.

(b) One part of the salt requires 17 of cold water for solution, but five parts of hot water take up two of the salt.

(c) It is not decomposed by exposure to the direct rays of the sun, either in a crystallized or dissolved state.

(d) When the hyper-oxygenized muriate is submitted to distillation in a coated retort, it first fuses, and, on a further increase of temperature, yields oxygen gas of great purity. A hundred grains of the salt afford 75 cubic inches of gas, containing only about three per cent. of azotic gas.

(e) The hyper-oxygenized muriate of potash has no power of discharging vegetable colours; but the addition of a little of the sulphuric acid, by setting the oxygenized acid at liberty, develops this property.

(f) The salt is decomposed by the stronger acids, as the sulphuric and nitric acids. This will be proved by dropping a few grains of the salt into a little strong sulphuric acid. A strong smell will arise, and, if the quantities be sufficiently large, an explosion will ensue. The experiment should, therefore, be made with great caution. When this mixture is made at the bottom of a deep vessel, the vessel is filled with oxygenized muriatic gas, which inflames sulphuric ether, alcohol, or oil of turpentine, when poured into it; and also camphire, resin, tallow, elastic gum, &c. (Davy.)

Muriatic acid, as has already been stated, disengages the oxygenized acid; and the addition of a few grains

of the salt to an ounce measure of the acid, imparts to it the property of discharging vegetable colours.

(g) This salt exerts powerful effects on inflammable bodies.

1. Rub two grains into powder in a mortar, and add one grain of sulphur. Mix them very accurately, by gentle triture, and then, having collected the mixture to one part of the mortar, press the pestle down upon it suddenly, and forcibly. A loud detonation will ensue.—Or, if the mixed ingredients be wrapped in some strong paper, and then struck with a hammer, a still louder report will be produced.

2. Mix five grains of the salt with half the quantity of powdered charcoal in a similar manner. On trituring the mixture strongly, it will inflame, especially with the addition of a grain or two of sulphur, but not with much noise.

3. Mix a small quantity of sugar with half its weight of the salt, and on the mixture pour a little strong sulphuric acid. A sudden and vehement inflammation will be produced. This experiment, as well as the following, requires caution.

4. To one grain of the powdered salt, in a mortar, add about half a grain of phosphorus. The phosphorus will detonate, on the gentlest triture, with a very loud report. The hand should be covered with a glove in making this experiment, and care should be taken that the phosphorus, in an inflamed state, does not fly into the eyes.—Phosphorus may also be inflamed under the surface of water by means of this salt. Put into a wine-glass, one part of phosphorus with two of the salt; fill it nearly with water, and pour in, by means of a glass tube, reaching to the bottom, three or four parts of sulphuric acid. The phosphorus takes fire, and burns vividly under the water. This experiment requires caution, lest the inflamed phosphorus should be thrown into the eyes. (Davy.) Oil may also be thus inflamed on the surface of water, the experiment being made with the omission of the phosphorus, and the substitution of a little olive or linseed oil.

5. Hyper-oxygenized muriate may be substituted for nitre in the preparation of gun-powder, but the mixture of the ingredients requires extreme circumspection. It

may be proper also to state, that this salt should not be kept mixed with sulphur in considerable quantity, such mixtures having been known to detonate spontaneously.

ART. II.—*Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Soda.*

This salt may be obtained, by following the process already described, with the substitution of pure soda for potash. It is exceedingly difficult, however, to obtain it pure; because it nearly agrees, in solubility, with the common muriate of soda. It is soluble in three parts of cold water, and in rather less of hot, and is slightly deliquescent. It is soluble also in alcohol; but so also, according to Mr. Chenevix, is the common muriate. It crystallizes in cubes, or in rhomboids approaching the cube in form. In the mouth it produces a sensation of cold, and a taste scarcely to be discriminated from that of muriate of soda. In other properties it agrees with the similar salt with base of potash.

ART. III.—*Hyper-oxygenized Muriate of Ammonia.*

This salt cannot be procured by the direct union of the oxygenized acid with pure ammonia, because these two bodies mutually decompose each other; as will appear from the following experiments.

1. Fill a pint receiver with the oxygenized acid, prepared by the third process; and pour into it half a drachm of the strongest solution of ammonia that can be procured. A detonation will presently ensue.

2. Fill a four-ounce bottle with the oxygenized acid, and invert it in a cup containing 4 oz. measures of the solution of pure ammonia. Presently the liquor will be absorbed, and a detonation will ensue, which will throw down the bottle, unless firmly held by the hand. In the bottle there remains a portion of gas, which is azotic gas.

3. Pass the oxygenized acid through a solution of ammonia in a Woulfe's bottle; from one neck of which a tube proceeds, and terminates under the inverted funnel of the pneumatic trough. Bubbles of gas will be formed, and may be collected in an inverted receiver. They consist of pure azotic gas.

In all these experiments, the redundant oxygen of the acid unites with the hydrogen of the ammonia, and forms water, while the azote of the ammonia is liberated in a gaseous state. A combination of ammonia, with the hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid, may be formed, by adding a solution of carbonate of ammonia to one of hyper-oxy-muriate of lime. A salt is obtained, on evaporation, which is very soluble in water and in alcohol, and which is decomposed at a moderate temperature, yielding a quantity of gas and a smell of oxymuriatic acid. Its properties have not been much investigated.

The property which ammonia possesses, of decomposing oxygenized muriatic acid, renders it extremely useful in correcting the offensive vapours of that gas, which are sometimes accidentally set at liberty in places where it is prepared. And when suffocation threatens to come on, in consequence of the fumes of the oxygenized acid, the most effectual remedy is to hold a stopper, moistened with ammonia, to the mouth and nostrils.

ART. IV.—*Remaining Hyper-Oxygenized Muriates.*

To effect the combination of barytes and strontites with the hyper-oxygenized acid, those bases must be dissolved in hot water, which must be kept hot while the current of gas is transmitted through the solution. Lime may also be combined with the oxygenized acid, and must, to this end, be kept suspended by mechanical means. This compound derives importance from its application to the art of bleaching; for it possesses, when perfectly saturated, bleaching properties; and in this state produces whiteness in the unbleached part of goods, without destroying any delicate colours which they may contain. The salt, with base of lime, is extremely deliquescent; liquefies at a low heat; and is soluble in alcohol. It produces much cold by solution, and a sharp taste in the mouth.

For an account of the remaining salts formed with this acid, Mr. Chenevix's paper may be consulted.

SECT. III.

Nitro-Muriatic Acid.

This acid is a compound of the nitric and muriatic acids, and may be formed by mixing two parts of nitric acid with one of muriatic, and by several other processes, which are pointed out in every elementary book. Its most distinguishing property, that of dissolving gold, will be described hereafter.

The nitro-muriatic acid does not form, with alkaline, or other bases, a distinct genus of salts, entitled to the name of nitro-muriates; for, when combined with an alkali, or an earth, the solution yields, on evaporation, a mixture of a muriate and a nitrate; and metallic bodies, dissolved in it, yield muriates only. In the latter case, the nitric acid is decomposed, oxydizes the metal, and renders it soluble in muriatic acid.

CHAP. XV.

PHOSPHORUS,—PHOSPHORIC ACID,—PHOSPHATES.

SECT. I.

Phosphorus.

R 1. Phosphorus is an inflammable substance, and is known by the following external characters.

(a) It has generally a flesh-red colour, but, when care-

fully purified, may be obtained as free from colour, and as transparent, as melted white wax.

(b) It is so soft that it readily yields to the knife.

(c) It melts with a very gentle heat. To show this, it must be covered with water, to prevent it from inflaming.

(d) In the atmosphere it emits a white smoke, and peculiar smell; and a faint and beautiful light arises from it.

II. Phosphorus is inflamed by the application of a very gentle heat. According to Dr. Higgins, a temperature of 60° is sufficient to set it on fire, when perfectly dry. It burns with a very brilliant light, a white smoke, and a suffocating smell.

1. It may be set on fire by friction. Rub a very small bit between two pieces of brown paper; the phosphorus will inflame, and will set the paper on fire also.

2. In oxygen gas it burns with a very beautiful light; and also in nitrous oxide, and in oxygenized muriatic acid.

III. Phosphorus is volatile at 550° . Hence it may be raised by distillation; but, to prevent its taking fire on the application of heat, the retort should previously be filled with azotic or hydrogen gas, and the mouth of the retort be immersed in water.

To accomplish this, the quantity of phosphorus, which it is intended to rectify, should first be put into the retort, with a sufficient portion of water to cover it. The water must then be made hot enough to melt the phosphorus, which, on cooling, forms a compact mass, of the shape of the bottom of the retort. When cold, fill the retort, and its neck also, with water, and invert it in water. Displace the water by hydrogen gas, forced from a bladder through a bent pipe; keep the finger on the open end of the retort neck; place it in a sand bath; and immerse the mouth of it in water. Then apply heat very cautiously. A bladder should also be provided, furnished with a stop-cock and brass pipe, and filled with hydrogen gas. During the distillation, the gas, in the retort, is absorbed, and it is necessary to add more from the bladder, otherwise the water will rush into the retort, and occasion an explosion. By distillation, in this mode, phosphorus is rendered much purer.

IV. Phosphorus may be oxygenized in various modes.†

(a) By mere exposure to atmospheric air. Let a stick of phosphorus be placed in a funnel, the pipe of which terminates in an empty bottle. The phosphorus will be slowly oxygenized, and, after some time, will be wholly changed into an acid, which will fall into the bottle in a liquid state.

A large quantity of acid may be obtained, if a number of sticks be thus exposed; and as they would be in danger of taking fire, if heaped together, each stick should be inclosed in a glass tube, of rather larger diameter than itself. These tubes must be disposed round a funnel, the pipe of which terminates in a bottle. The whole should be covered by a bell-shaped receiver, the air of which is to be frequently changed. The acid thus obtained is termed the *Phosphorous Acid*.

(b) By combustion in oxygen gas, or in atmospheric air. When burnt in this manner, every hundred parts of phosphorus, according to Lavoisier, gain an addition of 154. See the account of this experiment in the 5th chapter of his Elements.

(c) By the nitric acid. If phosphorus be cautiously added, by little at once, to nitric acid, heated in a matrass, the nitric acid is decomposed, and its oxygen, uniting with the phosphorus, constitutes phosphoric acid.

A tubulated retort must be used for this purpose; and its neck may terminate in the apparatus already described for procuring nitric acid. By this contrivance a considerable quantity of acid will be saved.

(d) A similar effect is produced by oxygenized muriatic acid in a liquid state. The operation of this acid, in a gaseous form, has already been described.

Accordingly as the phosphoric acid is differently prepared, its degree of oxygenation differs, and its properties are found to vary proportionably.

The *phosphorous acid* exhales a disagreeable and fetid odour; and, when heated, yields penetrating white vapours. When heated in a glass-ball, blown at the end of a small tube, a gas issues from the orifice of the tube, which takes fire on coming into contact with the atmo-

† On the oxides of phosphorus, see Nich. Journ. vi. 133.

sphere. Hence it appears to contain an excess of phosphorus. The residuum, after being thus heated, is phosphoric acid.

SECT. II.

Phosphoric Acid.

I. To prepare this acid, the process *b*, *c*, or *d*, Sec. 1. may be employed; but the following is the most economical method.

On 20 pounds of bones, calcined to whiteness and finely powdered, pour 20 quarts of boiling water, and add eight pounds of sulphuric acid, diluted with an equal weight of water. Let these materials be well stirred together, and be kept in mixture about 24 hours. Let the whole mass be next put into a conical bag of sufficiently porous and strong linen, in order to separate the clear liquor, and let it be washed with water till the water ceases to have much acidity to the taste. Evaporate the strained liquor in earthen vessels, placed in a sand-heat, and, when reduced to about half its bulk, let it cool. A white sediment will form in considerable quantity, which must be allowed to subside; the clear solution must be decanted, and boiled to dryness in a glass vessel. A white mass will remain, which is the dry phosphoric acid. This may be fused in a crucible, and poured out on a clean copper dish. A transparent glass is obtained, which is the phosphoric acid in a glacial state; not, however, perfectly pure, but containing sulphate and phosphate of lime.—According to Fourcroy and Vauquelin, it is, in fact, a super-phosphate of lime, containing, in 100 parts, only 30 of uncombined phosphoric acid, and 70 of neutral phosphate of lime.

To procure the phosphoric acid perfectly pure, the oxygenation of phosphorus by nitric acid, is the most eligible process, (*c.* of the preceding article.) The undecomposed nitric acid must be separated by distillation in a glass retort, and the dry mass, when fused, affords a glacial phosphoric acid.

II. The phosphoric acid has the following properties :

(a) When pure it dissolves readily in water. That obtained immediately from bones is rendered insoluble by the admixture of earthy salts. But the glacial acid, prepared with nitric acid, is readily soluble.

(b) It is not volatile, nor capable of being decomposed by heat only, nor does it emit any smell when heated.

(c) When distilled in an earthen retort with powdered charcoal, it is decomposed; its oxygen, uniting with the carbon, forms carbonic acid, and the phosphorus rises in a separate state. This is the usual and best mode of obtaining phosphorus.

The phosphoric acid may either be employed for this purpose in the state of glass, finely powdered, and mixed with its weight of pulverized charcoal; or to the evaporated acid of bones, when acquiring a thick consistence, powdered charcoal may be added, in sufficient quantity, to give it solidity. In the latter mode, however, the materials are apt to swell, and to boil over. The mixture of acid and charcoal is then to be put into a stoneware retort, coated with Willis's lute, and the neck of which is lengthened out by a tin pipe. The open end of the pipe is to be immersed in a vessel of water. The heat is to be slowly raised, and at length made very intense. An enormous quantity of gas escapes, which takes fire on coming into contact with the atmosphere; and the phosphorus distils over in drops, which congeal in the water. As it is apt also to condense in, and to stop up, the neck of the retort and tin-pipe, it must be occasionally melted out of these, by a shovel full of hot cinders, held under them. The process is rather a difficult one; and though it is proper that the student should repeat it once, in order to complete a course of experiments, it will be found more economical to purchase, from the London preparers, the phosphorus which may be required for experiments.

Phosphorus may also be procured, by adding to urine a solution of lead in nitric acid, which precipitates a phosphate of lead. This, when well washed, dried, and distilled in a stoneware retort, yields phosphorus, (see Crell's Journal, Transl. iii. 36.): or a solution of phosphate of soda (which may be bought at the druggists), mixed with one of acetite of lead, in the proportion of one part

of the former salt to $1\frac{1}{4}$ of the latter, yields a precipitate of phosphate of lead, from which phosphorus may be procured by distillation.

SECT. III.

Phosphates.

With alkaline and earthy bases, the phosphoric acid composes a class of salts called Phosphates, which have the following generic characters.

1. When heated with charcoal, they are not decomposed, nor is phosphorus obtained.

2. They melt, before the blow-pipe, into a hard globule, sometimes transparent, at others opake.

3. They are soluble in nitric and muriatic acids, without effervescence, and are precipitated from those acids by lime-water, and pure ammonia.

4. They are decomposed, in part, by sulphuric acid, and yield a liquor which, on evaporation and distillation with charcoal, affords phosphorus.

The phosphate of soda is the only one of these salts which has any important use. It has been introduced into medicine, by Dr. Pearson, as a purgative, the purposes of which it answers, unaccompanied by any nauseous taste. The phosphate of lime, besides being found in the earth in a mineral form, constitutes a large part of the solid matter of animal bones.

As an enumeration of these salts can scarcely be interesting to the general student, and as the properties of the various salts, already described, furnish abundant discriminating characters of the different alkalies and earths, I deem it sufficient to refer, for a detailed account of them, to Dr. Thomson's elements, or La Grange's Manual.

SECT. IV.

Phosphites.

The phosphites differ considerably in their characters from phosphates.

1. They exhale a smell of phosphorus.
2. When heated, they emit a phosphorescent flame.
3. Distilled in a strong heat, they yield a little phosphorus, and are converted into phosphates.
4. They detonate, when heated with oxy-muriate of potash.
5. They are changed into phosphates by nitric, and by oxygenized muriatic acid.

SECT. V.

Binary Compounds of Phosphorus.

ART. I. Phosphorus combines with sulphur, and acquires a considerable addition to its inflammability. The combination may be effected, either by fusing them in a close glass vessel, or under water. In either mode, however, the process is too hazardous to be attempted by an inexperienced chemist.†

ART. II. Phosphorus combines with the pure fixed alkalies, and with earths, and composes the class of phosphurets. That of lime is the most readily formed, and exhibits, extremely well, the properties of these compounds. It is prepared as follows:

Take a glass tube, about 12 inches long and 1-3d of an inch diameter, sealed hermetically at one end. Let this tube be coated with clay, except within about half an inch of the sealed end. Put first into it a drachm or two of phosphorus, cut into small pieces, and then fill the tube with small bits of fresh burnt lime, of the size of split peas. Stop the mouth of the tube loosely with a

† On the preparation of this compound, consult Nicholson's Journal, 8vo, vol. vi. p. 14; and vol. vii. p. 58.

little paper, in order to prevent the free access of air.—Next, heat to redness that part of the tube which is coated with clay, by means of a chafing-dish of red-hot charcoal ; and, when the lime may be supposed to be ignited, apply heat to the part containing the phosphorus, so as to sublime it, and to bring the vapour of it into contact with the heated lime. The lime and phosphorus will unite, and will afford a compound of a reddish-brown colour.

If the carbonate of lime be substituted for pure lime, the carbonic acid is decomposed. Its carbon is set at liberty, and appears in the state of charcoal ; while its oxygen unites with the phosphorus ; and the phosphoric acid, thus produced, forms phosphate of lime. In this experiment, carbonic acid is decomposed by the conspiring affinities of phosphorus for oxygen, and of lime for phosphoric acid, though the former affinity only would be inadequate to produce the effect.

The phosphuret of lime has the remarkable property of decomposing water at the common temperature of the atmosphere. Drop a small piece of it into a wine-glass of water, and in a short time bubbles of phosphuretted hydrogen gas will be produced ; which, rising to the surface, will take fire, and explode. If the phosphuret of lime be not perfectly fresh, it may be proper to warm the water to which it is added.

Into an ale-glass put one part of phosphuret of lime, in pieces about the size of a pea (not in powder,) and add to it half a part of hyper-oxygenized muriate of potash. Fill the glass with water, and put into it a funnel, with a long pipe, or narrow glass-tube, reaching to the bottom. Through this pour three or four parts of strong sulphuric acid, which will decompose the hyper-oxygenized salt ; and the phosphuret also decomposing the water at the same time, flashes of fire dart from the surface of the fluid, and the bottom of the vessel is illuminated by a beautiful green light, (Davy.)

Another combination of phosphorus, the properties of which render it a fit subject of amusing experiments, is the phosphuretted hydrogen gas.

ART. III.—*Phosphuretted Hydrogen Gas.*

I. This gas may be procured, by boiling, in a retort, a little phosphorus with a solution of pure potash. The water is decomposed; its oxygen, uniting with the phosphorus, forms phosphoric acid, which combines with the alkali, while the hydrogen dissolves another portion of phosphorus, constituting phosphuretted hydrogen gas.— This gas may also be obtained, by putting into five parts of water half a part of phosphorus, cut into very small pieces, with one of finely granulated zinc, and adding three parts of strong sulphuric acid. This affords a pretty experiment. The gas is disengaged in small bubbles, which cover the whole surface of the fluid, and take fire on reaching the air; these are succeeded by others, and a well of fire is produced. (Davy.)

In preparing this gas, the body of the retort should be filled, as nearly as possible, with the alkaline solution;† otherwise the gas, when produced, will inflame and diminish the air within the retort, and the water will ascend from the trough. This accident may be effectually prevented, by previously filling the retort with hydrogen gas.

II. The properties of this gas are the following:

(a) It takes fire immediately on coming into contact with the air. This may be shown by letting it escape into the air, as it issues from the retort, when a very beautiful appearance will ensue. A circular dense white smoke rises in the form of a horizontal ring, which enlarges its diameter as it ascends, and forms a kind of corona.

(b) When mixed suddenly with oxygen gas it de-

This experiment should be made cautiously and in small quantity.

(c) The same phenomenon ensues on mixing it with oxygenized muriatic acid gas, or with nitrous oxide.

† The phosphorus should first be melted, under water, in the retort; which is to be emptied when the phosphorus has congealed, and then entirely filled by the alkaline solution. Of this, a sufficient portion is to be displaced by hydrogen gas, forced through a bent pipe from a bladder.

When mingled with any of these gases, it should be passed up by not more than a bubble or two at once.

(*d*) Sulphurous acid and phosphuretted hydrogen gases, when mingled together, mutually decompose each other.

(*e*) It deposits phosphorus, by standing, on the inner surface of the receiver, and loses its property of spontaneous ascension.

Phosphorus is also soluble in oils; and, when thus dissolved, forms what has been called liquid phosphorus, which may be rubbed on the face and hands without injury. It dissolves too in ether, and a very beautiful experiment consists in pouring this phosphoric ether in small portions, and in a dark place, on the surface of hot water.

The phosphoric matches consist of phosphorus extremely dry, minutely divided, and perhaps a little oxygenized. —The simplest mode of making them is to put a little phosphorus, dried by blotting paper, into a small phial; heat the phial, and when the phosphorus is melted, turn it round, so that the phosphorus may adhere to the sides. Cork the phial closely, and it is prepared. On putting a common sulphur-match into the bottle, and stirring it about, the phosphorus will adhere to the match, and will take fire when brought out into the air.

A correspondent in *Nicholsen's Journal* (xi. 137) proposes to effect the oxydation of phosphorus, by exposing 100 grains to half a pint of oxymuriatic acid gas. The vessel must afterwards be well corked up. On applying a sulphur-match to the oxygenized phosphorus, it is inflamed, as in the foregoing example.

CHAP. XVI.

BORACIC ACID.

I. This acid is very rarely found native; and, for purposes of experiment, is obtained from the purified borax of commerce, by one of the following processes:

1. To a solution of borax, in boiling water, add half its weight of sulphuric acid, previously diluted with an equal quantity of water. Evaporate the solution a little; and, on cooling, shining scaly crystals will appear, which consist of boracic acid. Let them be well washed with distilled water, and dried on filtering paper.

2. Let any quantity of borax be put into a retort, with half its weight of sulphuric acid, and half its weight of water. Boracic acid may be obtained by distillation, and may be purified, by washing in water, &c. as before.

II. Boracic acid has the following qualities.

1. It has a solid form, is destitute of smell, and nearly so of taste.

2. It fuses, when heated, and loses its water of crystallization. If the heat be increased suddenly, before it has lost its water of crystallization, it sublimes; but, otherwise, it melts into a glass, which is permanent in the strongest fire.

3. It is soluble in twelve parts of cold water, and in three or four of boiling water.

4. This solution reddens vegetable blue colours, and effervesces with alkaline carbonates.

5. It is soluble in alcohol, and the solution burns with a beautiful green flame.

6. It combines with alkalies and earths; but the only important combination which it forms is with soda. This compound is found native in India, and is brought to this country, under the name of tincal, or brute borax,

which, when purified, affords the borax of the shops. In the borate of soda, the alkaline ingredient is in excess, and hence the salt converts vegetable blue colours to green. It is therefore, in strictness, a sub-borate.

Sub-borate of soda crystallizes in prisms with six irregular sides. It effloresces in the air. It fuses when ignited; loses its water of crystallization; and leaves a glass, which is transparent when cold, and which is of great use in experiments with the blow-pipe. The salt dissolves in 12 parts of cold water, or in six of boiling water. It is susceptible of combination, by fusion, with silic and with alumina; and hence is employed in making artificial gems.

For a description of the remaining borates, I refer to the 2d vol. of Thomson's Elements, or the 1st vol. of La Grange.

CHAP. XVII.

FLUORIC ACID.

I. THE fluoric acid may be obtained from a substance found abundantly in Derbyshire, under the name of *fluor spar*. In converting this spar to ornamental purposes, small pieces are broken off, which may be had at a cheap rate.

The fluoric acid may be separated from this combination, *in the form of gas*, by adding, to the powdered spar, in a block tin or leaden gas-bottle, half its weight of concentrated sulphuric acid. The gas, which is disengaged, may be conducted, by a bent glass tube, to the mercurial trough. The receivers employed should be previously coated with wax, by making them hot enough in an oven to melt that substance, and then allowing the

wax to run in fusion over their whole inner surface. This gas, in its properties, bears a considerable resemblance to muriatic acid gas. It has somewhat of a similar smell; produces a white smoke in the atmosphere; and is rapidly absorbed by water and by ice. It has the remarkable property of corroding glass. This may be observed by passing up, into a jar filled with it, a small slip of glass, which will be considerably acted on. If partially applied, by covering the glass with a cement of wax and resin, and removing it in part only, the gas may be employed for writing or engraving on glass; and its application to this purpose has been proposed as an important improvement in the art of engraving, by Professor Wilson of Glasgow. (Nich. Journ. 4to, II. 60.)

The fluoric acid may also be obtained *in a liquid state*, by using a leaden retort and leaden receiver. An ingenious apparatus, invented for this purpose by Mr. Knight, is described and figured in the 17th vol. of the Philosophical Magazine.

The liquid acid must be preserved in leaden bottles, as it soon corrodes and penetrates glass ones. In this state of watery solution, it readily combines with alkalies, and forms soluble compounds. Its combinations with the earths are for the most part highly insoluble. The fluates have no properties that can render them interesting to the student, except the use of the alkaline ones as tests, which will be described in a subsequent part of the work.

CHAP. XVIII.

R.

OF METALS.

SECT. I.

Of Metals in general.

I. THE metals are distinguished by the following characters : They are perfectly opaque ; have a kind of lustre peculiar to themselves ; are insoluble in water ; are fusible ; have a specific gravity superior to that of any other simple body, none of them being less than six times heavier than water ; and are all conductors of electricity. In the present state of science, they are simple bodies, or have not been reduced into more elementary principles. Some of them have the property of being extended under the hammer, or are *malleable* ; and many of them may be drawn into wire, or are *ductile*. Other metals have neither of these properties.

II. The metals at present known amount to 28 ; viz, 1. Gold ; 2. Platina ; 3. Silver ; 4. Mercury ; 5. Rhodium ; 6. Palladium ; 7. Iridium ; 8. Osmium ; 9. Copper ; 10. Iron ; 11. Nickel ; 12. Tin ; 13. Lead ; 14. Zinc ; 15. Bismuth ; 16. Antimony ; 17. Tellurium ; 18. Arsenic ; 19. Cobalt ; 20. Manganese ; 21. Chrome ; 22. Molybdena ; 23. Uranium ; 24. Tungsten ; 25. Titanium ; 26. Columbium ; 27. Tantalum ; 28. Cerium.

III. The most important property, common to the whole class of metals, is their susceptibility of union with oxygen. The phenomena and results, however, of the oxydizement of different metals vary considerably.

1. Some metals are oxydized merely by exposure to

atmospherical air, at the ordinary temperature. Such are arsenic and manganese.

2. Other metals undergo this change by exposure to air, but not without a considerable increase of their temperature. Iron, zinc, copper, tin, &c. for example, when made red-hot, lose their metallic brilliancy, and are converted into oxides of different colours. In some instances, this process is accompanied by so copious an extrication of light and heat, as to exhibit a true combustion or inflammation. Arsenic and zinc, for example, burn in a high temperature with a brilliant flame. Copper, lead and various other metals, are slowly oxydized under similar circumstances, and without any appearance of combustion.

3. Other metals are not oxydized, even by the combined operation of air and of an increased temperature; such are gold and platina. By a powerful discharge through them, from an electrical or galvanic battery, these metals have their affinity of aggregation so far overcome, as to combine readily with oxygen. Thus a wire of gold, silver, or platina, is volatilized by the discharge of an electrical battery: and the metal, in this state, is oxydized by the air of the atmosphere. The same metals also, and various others, beat into very thin leaves, burn with great brilliancy, and with differently coloured flames, by transmitting through them the discharge from a powerful galvanic combination.

4. All metals, that are oxydized by the combined operation of heat and atmospherical air, undergo the same change, much more speedily and remarkably in oxygen gas. Iron wire, when heated to ignition in the air, is slowly oxydized; but in oxygen gas, it burns with considerable splendour.

5. Some metals are oxydized by water, both at the ordinary temperature of the air, and in high temperatures. Thus iron filings, moistened with water, become oxydized, in consequence of its decomposition; and the vapour of water, passed over red-hot iron, is rapidly decomposed, the iron gaining 28 per cent. of oxygen. Other metals, as gold, silver, &c. are not oxydized by water in any temperature.

6. All metals, in consequence of oxydation, acquire weight. This may be shown by keeping a given weight

of iron-wire red-hot, for some time, in the bowl of a common tobacco-pipe, taking care that dust or ashes do not fall into it.

7. Metals, that do not attract oxygen, either from atmospheric air, from oxygen gas, or from water, are still capable of separating that principle from certain of the acids; and the easily oxydizable metals effect the same decomposition of acids with much greater facility. In thus communicating oxygen to the metals, those acids are the most efficient, in which the oxygen is retained only by a feeble affinity. For example, concentrated sulphuric acid, at the temperature of the atmosphere, scarcely acts on any one of the metals; because the sulphur, which constitutes its base, strongly attracts and retains the acidifying principle. Muriatic acid, in a gaseous state, is still more inert; for it is incapable of imparting, and indeed has not been proved to contain, oxygen. On the other hand, nitric, nitro-muriatic, and oxygenized muriatic acids, readily abandon part of their oxygen, and act on metals with considerable energy. The dilution of sulphuric and muriatic acids with water, also, renders them capable of oxydizing metals; for, in this case, water is decomposed, as is evinced by the escape of hydrogen gas.

8. The oxydizement of a metal always precedes its solution; and no one metal is capable of uniting, when in a perfectly metallic state, with any acid. It must either be oxydized by the acid, or brought into contact with the acid already combined with oxygen. Hence the oxides of certain metals dissolve readily in some acids, which do not at all act on the respective metals themselves. Gold, for instance, is unchanged by muriatic acid; but with this acid its oxide easily unites.

9. The phenomena of the solution of a metal, and those attending the solution of its oxide, are essentially different. For the most part, the action of an acid on a metal is accompanied with the appearance termed effervescence, which always arises from the escape of a gas. Thus, when nitric acid acts on iron, the metal acquires oxygen at the expence of the acid, which is thus changed into nitrous gas. The same metal, added to diluted sulphuric acid, decomposes water; and an effervescence is produced by the escaping hydrogen gas. But the ox-

ides of metals dissolve silently, and without effervescence; as may be seen by adding the red oxide of iron to nitric or sulphuric acid. In this case, the metal, being already combined with oxygen, has no tendency to decompose the acids.

10. The same metal is capable of uniting with various quantities of oxygen; and its oxides differ, both in external and chemical characters, according to their degree of oxydizement. Thus iron, combined with 28 per cent. of oxygen, gives a black oxide, with 48, a red one. Manganese, united with one-fifth of oxygen, affords a white oxide; with one-fourth, a red one; and with two-fifths, one of a deep black colour. The larger the proportion of oxygen in these compounds, the more feeble the affinity by which it is retained. The black oxide of manganese, for example, submitted alone to the action of a high temperature, readily abandons 10 or 12 per cent. of the 40 parts of oxygen with which the metal is combined; but no degree of heat is capable of separating the last 25 or 20.

11. The various oxides of the same metal form, with a given acid, very different compounds. Iron, for example, oxydized to the extent of only 27 per cent. affords, with sulphuric, nitric, or muriatic acid, a green salt, insoluble in alcohol, and precipitated at first of a white colour by prussiate of potash. Still further oxydized, or to the extent of 48 per cent. the same metal forms a reddish salt, which is soluble in alcohol, and precipitated by prussiate of potash of a deep blue colour.

12. Metals retain oxygen with different degrees of force. Some oxides (that of mercury for instance) are reduced to a metallic state by heat only; but others (as that of iron) require the addition of some substance that attracts oxygen more strongly than the metal retains it. Thus, to reduce the oxide of iron, charcoal must be added.

The gradation in the affinities of metals for oxygen, is evinced also by the property which metals possess, of abstracting oxygen, under certain circumstances, from each other. Thus when the oxide of mercury is exposed to heat, in contact with iron filings, the iron becomes oxydized, and the mercury re-appears in a metallic state. On the same principle, when glass, which contains oxide

of lead, is fused along with metallic iron, the latter metal attracts oxygen from the former, and the lead is again metallized. This separation of oxygen from a metallic oxide, either by the simple action of heat, or of another combustible body, is termed the *revival* or *reduction* of a metal.

13. From their solutions in acids, metals are precipitated by alkalies in the state of oxides; and by other metals capable of producing this effect, in a metallic form. Thus, if to a solution of sulphate of copper, pure potash be added, a blue oxide is precipitated. But immerse a polished piece of iron in the same solution, and the copper will be separated in a metallic form, covering the iron with a coat of copper. In this instance, the affinity of iron for oxygen is superior to that of copper; and the latter metal, being de-oxydized, is no longer soluble in sulphuric acid.

14. Some of the metals are susceptible, by union with oxygen, of affording both oxides and an acid; or, in other words, are acidifiable. Such are chrome, arsenic, molybdena, tungsten, and columbium. These acids are capable of uniting with alkalis, earths, and in many instances with metallic oxides, and of forming neutral salts.

IV. On a comparison of the resemblances among metals, both in physical and in chemical properties, various arrangements of these bodies have been founded. They were formerly divided into *noble* or *perfect*, and *base* metals. The *noble* metals are not oxydized by exposure to the combined action of heat and air; and their oxides, when obtained by circuitous processes, or found native, abandon their oxygen, when heated alone, without the addition of any combustible matter. Under this description, are included gold, platina, silver, palladium, and, according to Richter's late experiments, nickel. Mercury, though oxydized by heat and air, has still been always comprehended under the same order; because its oxides are revived when heated *per se*. All the remaining metals fall under the denomination of *base* metals.

Another arrangement of metals is that which divides them into metals or *entire metals*, and *semi-metals*; and the principle of this arrangement is their possessing or not the quality of malleability. The *malleable* or *entire* metals are

gold, silver, platina, palladium, mercury (when frozen), iron, lead, zinc, copper, tin, and nickel*. The *semi-metals* are, bismuth, antimony, arsenic, manganese, cobalt, molybdena, and all that follow it in the preceding enumeration. Of these, however, several have been hitherto procured in such small quantity, that their properties still remain to be examined.

A third classification is that of Fourcroy, who divides the metals into five orders. 1. The *brittle and acidifiable* includes four species, viz. arsenic, tungsten, molybdena, and chrome. 2. The *brittle and simply oxydizable* are seven; titanium, uranium, cobalt, nickel (since shewn by Richter not to belong to this division) manganese, bismuth, antimony, and tellurium. 3. The metals that are *oxydizable and imperfectly ductile*, are mercury and zinc. 4. The *ductile and easily oxydizable* tin, lead, iron, and copper. 5. The *very ductile, and difficult of oxydization*, are silver, gold, and platina.

The most recent arrangement is that of Dr. Thomson; and this classification I shall adopt; as it appears to me to be the best that has been contrived. He divides the metals into four classes. The 1st class comprehends the **MALLEABLE METALS**, which are 14 in number; viz. gold, platina, silver, mercury, palladium, rhodium, iridium, copper, iron, nickel, tin, lead, and zinc. The second class includes the **BRITTLE AND EASILY FUSED**; viz. bismuth, antimony, tellurium, and arsenic. The third, metals that are **BRITTLE AND DIFFICULTLY FUSED**. These are cobalt, manganese, chrome, molybdena, uranium, and tungsten. The fourth class are termed **REFRACTORY METALS**, because they have never yet been exhibited in a separate form, but always in combination with oxygen. These are titanium, columbium, tantalum, and cerium.

V. Sulphur, and some of its combinations, are capable of uniting with metals and their oxides.

1. All the metals, excepting gold, and perhaps titanium, may be combined with sulphur. Of the remainder, iron and copper unite with sulphur in two very different proportions; in the one forming a *sulphuret*; and, in the other, a *super-sulphuret*.

* Per Richter.

2. Three of the metals, when oxydized, are capable of uniting with sulphur, viz. tin, zinc, and manganese. These compounds are termed *sulphuretted oxides*.

3. Several of the metallic oxides are susceptible of combination with sulphuretted hydrogen; and compose *hydro-sulphuretted oxides*. These are produced, when a metallic oxide is precipitated from its solution by the hydro-sulphuret of ammonia or of potash. It has not hitherto been ascertained, whether super-sulphuretted hydrogen can be united with metallic oxides; for the nature of the precipitates, separated from metallic solutions by hydroguretted sulphurets, has not been sufficiently investigated.

VI. The metals have an affinity for phosphorus, and combine with it, forming metallic *phosphurets*. The most effectual method of bringing about this combination, is to heat the metals in contact with phosphoric acid and charcoal. The charcoal deprives the acid of oxygen, and the phosphorus then unites with the metal. Those metals that are easily oxydized, decompose the acid, without the addition of charcoal. These compounds have not hitherto been applied to any useful purpose. They are fully described by Pelletier, in the 1st and 13th volumes of the *Annales de Chimie*.

VII. The compounds of metals with carbon are termed *carburets*. That of iron is the only one of which much is known.

VIII. The metals are for the most part capable of uniting with each other, and the compounds thus formed are termed *alloys*. Several of these have important practical uses.

IX. The metals are seldom found native, and require generally to be separated by artificial processes, from the substances with which they are combined. For the most part, they occur in the state of oxides, and frequently in union with sulphur or arsenic. The volatile ingredients are separated by long exposure to a low red heat, which is termed *roasting*; and they are deprived of oxygen by charcoal, or substances containing it, assisted by a strong heat. To enable the particles of reduced metal to approach each other, and cohere into a mass, substances are also mixed with the inflammable matter, which readily enter into fusion, and are termed *fluxes*.

FIRST CLASS.

MALLEABLE METALS.

SECT. II.

Gold.

I. Gold may be melted by a moderate red heat ; and, when the heat is greatly increased, the metal is in part volatilized.

II. Pure gold is not oxydized by exposure to heat with the access of air.

III. It is not acted on by sulphuric, nitric, or muriatic acid, even at the boiling temperature.

IV. It is dissolved, however, by nitro-muriatic acid, and also by the oxygenized muriatic acid. A thin sheet of gold introduced into the latter acid, when in a gaseous state, takes fire and burns.

V. The nitro-muriate of gold gives a purple stain to the skin, and is susceptible of crystallization.

VI. It is decomposed by alkalies. A solution of pure ammonia separates an oxide of gold, and a portion of ammonia, uniting with the oxide, forms a compound which detonates very loudly in a gentle heat, and is termed *fulminating gold*.

To obtain this compound, add a solution of ammonia in water, or the pure liquid ammonia, to diluted muriate of gold; a precipitate will appear, which will be re-dissolved if too much alkali be used. Let the liquid be filtered, and wash the sediment, which remains on the filter, with several portions of warm water. Dry it by exposure to the air, without any artificial heat, and preserve it in a bottle, closed, not with a glass-stopper, but merely by a cork. A small portion of this powder, less than a grain in weight, being placed on the point of a knife, and held over a lamp, detonates violently.

This detonation is explained as follows: Fulminating gold is composed of an oxide of that metal, combined with ammonia. When its temperature is raised, the ammonia is decomposed; the hydrogen of the alkali unites

with the oxygen of the oxide, and reduces the gold to a metallic state; and azotic gas, and probably aqueous vapour, are liberated in a highly expanded state. The violent impulse of these aëriiform products, on the surrounding atmosphere, appears to be the cause of the loud noise that is occasioned by the explosion of this compound. A similar explanation may be applied to other fulminating compounds of metallic oxides with ammonia; such as those of silver and mercury, which will be described hereafter.

VII. The solution of gold is also decomposed by certain combustible bodies, which attract the oxygen from the gold, and render it insoluble. (a.) Into a dilute solution of gold,* contained in a glass jar, put a long narrow slip of charcoal, and expose the whole to the direct light of the sun. The gold will be revived, and will appear on the charcoal in a metallic state, exhibiting a very beautiful appearance. The same change ensues without light, if the solution be exposed to a temperature of 212°.

(b) Moisten a piece of white taffeta ribband, with the dilute solution of gold, and expose it to a current of hydrogen gas from iron filings and dilute sulphuric acid. The gold will be reduced, and the ribband will be gilt with the metal. By means of a camel's hair pencil, the gold may be so applied as to exhibit regular figures, when reduced.

(c) The same experiment may be repeated, substituting phosphuretted hydrogen for common hydrogen gas. The reader, who wishes for a detail of various experiments of a similar kind, may consult an Essay on Combustion, by Mrs. Fulhame, published by Johnson, London, 1794, and also count Rumford's paper, in the Phil. Trans. 1798, p. 449.

VIII. Gold is precipitated from muriatic acid, in a metallic form, by a solution of green sulphate of iron.

IX. When a sheet of tin is immersed in a solution of nitro-muriate of gold, the oxide of gold is precipitated of a purple colour; and, when scraped off and collected, forms the purple powder of Cassius, much employed in

* The nitro-muriate of gold, employed in these experiments, should be previously evaporated to dryness, in order to expel the superfluous acid, and afterwards dissolved in distilled water.

enamelling. The same precipitate is obtained by mixing a solution of gold with a solution of tin in muriatic acid.

X. Gold is precipitated from its solvent by ether, but the oxide of gold is instantly redissolved by the ether, and forms the ethereal solution of gold.

XI. Sulphurets of alkalies unite with gold both in the dry and humid way. To exhibit this, some leaf-gold may be digested, with heat, in a solution of sulphuret of potash.

XII. The methods of purifying gold, by the operations of cupelling and quartation, would lead into too long details. They are very perspicuously described by La Grange, in the 44th chapter of his *Manuel*, and in Nicholson's *Principles of Chemistry*. To the former work, and to Dr. Thomson's *Elements*, I refer also for information respecting the alloys of gold with other metals.

SECT. III.

Platina.

I. Platina, in the state in which it reaches this country, is contaminated by the presence of several other metals; and, in fact, is merely an ore of platina. It is in the form of small grains or scales, of a whiter colour than iron, and extremely heavy. Various processes have been contrived for its purification; (See La Grange, Vol. II.) but the one, which is the most simple and practicable, appears to me to be that of Count Moussin Poushkin, communicated by Mr. Hatchett in the 9th volume of Nicholson's *Journal*. It is unnecessary, however, to detail these processes; as the metal may now be had, in a pure state, at a reasonable price; among other places, at Cary's, No. 182, Strand, London.

II. Platina has the following properties:

1. It is a white metal, resembling silver in colour, but greatly exceeding it, and indeed all other metals, in specific gravity.

2. It is extremely difficult of fusion. It may be melted, however, by the blow-pipe, with the aid of oxygen gas.

3. It is not oxydized by the long-continued and concurrent action of heat and air.

4. It has the property of *welding*,† which belongs to no other metal but this and iron.

5. It is not acted on by any other acid than the nitromuriatic and oxygenized muriatic. The former is best adapted to effect this solution. Sixteen parts of the compound acid are to be poured on one of the laminated metal, and exposed to heat in a glass vessel; nitrous gas is disengaged, and a reddish coloured solution is obtained, which gives a brown stain to the skin.

6. The muriate of platina may be crystallized by careful evaporation. The salt has a very acrid taste, and is deliquescent. It is decomposed by heat, and an oxide of platina remains, which is reduced to a metallic form by ignition with charcoal.

7. The muriate of platina has the characteristic property of being precipitated by a solution of muriate of ammonia. By this character, platina is distinguished from all other metals, and may be separated when mingled with them in solution. The precipitate, thus obtained, is decomposed by a strong heat, and leaves pure platina.

8. Muriate of platina is not precipitated by prussiate of potash, nor by sulphate of iron. If any precipitate ensue, it is owing to contamination with other metals.

9. It is precipitated of a dark green colour by the gallic acid as present in tincture of galls. The precipitate becomes gradually paler by standing.—La Grange, II. 272.

10. When pure potash is poured into the muriatic solution, a precipitate ensues, which is not an oxide of platina, but a triple compound of that oxide with the alkali and acid. With soda, also, it forms a triple combination. This is best obtained, by adding to nitric acid, in a retort, platina, with twice its weight of muriate of soda, and applying heat till about four-fifths of the fluid have come over. The remaining liquor forms, on cooling, fine prismatic crystals, sometimes four or five inches long; and either reddish brown, like titanium: yellow, like am-

† Two pieces of wrought iron, raised to a white heat, become covered with a kind of varnish; and, when brought into contact, may be permanently united by forging. This is called the welding of iron.

ber; or of a beautiful coqueliest colour.—*Nich. Journ.* IX. 8vo. 67.

11. Muriate of platina is precipitated by sulphuretted hydrogen.

12. Platina is acted upon by fusion with nitrate of potash, and also with pure fixed alkalies.

13. The most delicate test of the presence of platina is muriate of tin. A solution of platina, so dilute as to be scarcely distinguishable from water, assumes a bright red colour, on the addition of a single drop of the recent solution of tin.

14. Platina has been discovered by Dr. Wollaston to be a remarkably slow conductor of caloric. When equal pieces of silver, copper, and platina, were covered with wax, and heated at one end, the wax was melted $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches on the silver; $2\frac{1}{2}$ on the copper; and 1 inch only on the platina. Its expansion by heat is considerably less than that of steel, which, between the temperatures of 32° and 212° is expanded about 12 parts in 10,000, while the expansion of platina is only about 10.

SECT. IV.

Silver.

I. Silver, also, is a metal which is difficultly oxydized by the concurrence of heat and air.

II. It is acted on by sulphuric acid, which, when assisted by heat, oxydizes and partly dissolves it.

III. Nitric acid dissolves it with a disengagement of nitrous gas. If the silver be pure the solution is colourless, otherwise it has a green hue. (N. 29.)

IV. Muriatic acid does not act on silver; yet this acid takes silver from others. Thus when muriatic acid is added to nitrate of silver, a white curdy precipitate falls down in great abundance. This precipitate is decomposed by light; for, when exposed to the direct rays of the sun, its colour becomes gradually darker. If fused by a gentle heat it forms a semitransparent mass of the consistence of horn, called *luna cornea*, or horn silver.

Muriate of silver is decomposed by fusion with carbonate of soda. Mix one part of the former with three of

the latter salt, and let the mixture be fused in a crucible. When cold, the silver will be found reduced at the bottom of the crucible; break the mass, and separate the metal. This is one of the best modes of obtaining silver in a state of purity.

V. A solution of nitrate of silver stains animal substances a deep black. Hence it has been applied to the staining of human hair; but, when thus employed, it should be very much diluted, and used with great caution, on account of its corrosive quality.

White paper, or white leather, when stained with a solution of nitrate of silver, in the proportion of 10 water to one of the salt, undergoes no change in the dark; but when exposed to the light of day, it gradually acquires colour, and passes through a succession of changes to black. The common sun-beams, passing through red glass, have very little effect upon it; yellow and green are more efficacious; but blue and violet produce the most decidedly powerful effects. Hence this property furnishes a method of copying paintings on glass, and transferring them to leather or paper. The process is described by Mr. T. Wedgwood, in Nicholson's Journal, 8vo, III. 167.

By a similar process, ivory may be covered with silver. Let a slip of ivory be immersed in a dilute solution of pure nitrate of silver, till the ivory has acquired a bright yellow colour. Then remove it into a tumbler filled with distilled water, and expose it to the direct light of the sun. After two or three hours exposure, it will have become black; but on rubbing it a little, the surface will be changed into a bright metallic one, resembling a slip of pure silver. As the solution penetrates deep into the ivory, the bright surface, when worn away, is replaced by a succession of others.

VI. The solution of nitrate of silver, when evaporated, forms regular crystals. These crystals fuse when heated; and being poured in this state, into moulds, form the common lunar caustic.

VII. Nitrate of silver is decomposed by other metals. Thus the surface of a plate of copper, to which a little of the solution is applied, becomes plated over with silver. If a little mercury be poured into a bottle filled with this solution, and the bottle be left some time undisturbed,

moderate heat is to be applied till effervescence is excited. A white fume then begins to undulate on the surface of the liquor, and the powder will be gradually precipitated on the cessation of action and re-action. The precipitate is to be immediately collected on a filter, well washed with distilled water, and cautiously dried in a heat not exceeding that of a water-bath. The immediate washing of the powder is material, because it is liable to the re-action of the nitric acid, and while any of that acid adheres to it, it is very subject to the action of light. From 100 grains of mercury, about 120 or 130 of the powder are obtained. (See Phil. Trans. 1800, p. 214.) This powder has the property of detonating loudly in a gentle heat, or by light friction.

The following curious fact, respecting the fulminating mercury, we owe to Mr. Accum. Four ounces of this substance were placed, still wet, on a chalkstone, and left in this situation, unobserved, for three months. The product was found converted into a brilliant black powder. On attempting to collect it into a heap, and to separate it from the paper which had been interposed, a globule of running mercury was seen. On introducing the powder into a bottle, and shaking it, heat was evolved, and the whole reduced to the metallic state.—Nich. Journ. 8vo, i. 299.

VIII. Mercury is not dissolved by muriatic acid, but may be brought into union with this acid by double elective affinity. Thus when sulphate of mercury and muriate of soda, both well dried, are mixed and exposed to heat, a combination of oxide of mercury and muriatic acid is obtained by sublimation. This compound is the *corrosive sublimate* of the shops. The same components, with a still farther addition of mercury, constitute an insoluble substance called *calomel*.

In calomel, the oxide of mercury contains about 10 per cent. of oxygen, and the salt about 88 of the oxide, and 12 of muriatic acid. Corrosive sublimate, in 100 parts, has 82 of an oxide containing 15 per cent. of oxygen.—Chenevix, Phil. Trans. 1801.

IX. The oxides of mercury are all reduced by heat alone, without the addition of any combustible substance, and afford oxygen gas.

X. Mercury dissolves gold, silver, tin, and many other

metals; and if these be combined with it in sufficient quantity, the mercury loses its fluidity, and forms an amalgam. A solid amalgam of lead, and another of bismuth, on admixture together, have the singular property of instantly becoming fluid.

By combination with mercury, metals that are not easily oxydized, acquire a facility of entering into this union. Thus gold and silver, when combined with mercury, are oxydized by agitation in contact with air. This fact furnishes a striking illustration of the effect of overcoming the aggregative affinity of bodies in promoting chemical union.

XI. By combination with sulphur, mercury affords two distinct compounds. By long-continued trituration, these two bodies unite, and form a black sulphuret. When united together by fusion, and afterwards sublimed, they constitute a red sulphuret called cinnabar, which, when powdered, affords the common pigment vermilion. This compound also may be obtained by mixing concentrated solutions of muriate of mercury and hydro-sulphuret of ammonia. A brownish muddy precipitate is obtained, which, when left undisturbed, turns yellow in three or four days, then orange, and finally acquires a beautiful cinnabar colour.—Accum, in Nich. Journ. 8vo, i. 299.

SECT. VI.

Rhodium and Palladium.

The discovery of these two metals we owe to the ingenuity of Dr. Wollaston, who separated them from the ore of platina, by the following process.

I. RHODIUM. When a solution of the ore of platina in nitro-muriatic acid has been precipitated, as far as possible, by muriate of ammonia (see Sect. 3.) it still retains a considerable degree of colour, varying with the strength and proportion of the acids that have been employed in effecting the solution. Beside iron, and a portion of the ammonia-muriate of platina, it contains, also, other metals in very small proportion.

1. Let a cylinder, or thin plate of zinc, or iron, be

immersed in the solution. It will separate all the metals that are present, in the state of a black powder. Wash the precipitate (without drying it) with very dilute nitric acid, assisted by a gentle heat, which will dissolve the copper and lead. Digest the remainder in dilute nitro-muriatic acid; and to the solution, when completed, add a portion of muriate of soda, equivalent in weight to about 1-50th the ore of platina employed. Evaporate by a gentle heat. The dry mass contains the soda-muriates of platina, palladium, and rhodium; the two former of which may be separated by alcohol, and the salt of rhodium will remain. From its solution, the rhodium may be precipitated by zinc, which throws down a black powder, amounting, in weight, to four grains from 4000 of the ore.

2. When exposed to heat, the powder continues black; with borax it acquires a white metallic lustre, but appears infusible by any degree of heat. It is rendered fusible, however, by arsenic, and also by sulphur; both of which may be expelled by a continued heat; but the metallic button, thus obtained, is not malleable.

3. The specific gravity of rhodium, as near as it could be taken, was 11.

4. Rhodium unites readily with all the metals that have been tried, excepting mercury. It does not discolour gold when alloyed with it.

5. When an alloy of silver or gold with rhodium is digested in nitric or nitro-muriatic acid, the rhodium remains untouched; but when alloyed with three times its weight of bismuth, copper, or lead, each of these alloys may be dissolved completely, in a mixture, by measure, of two parts muriatic acid with one of nitric. The lead appears preferable, as it is reduced, by evaporation, to an insoluble muriate. The muriate of rhodium then exhibits the rose colour, from which the name of the metal has been derived. It is soluble in alcohol.

6. Rhodium is not precipitated from its solution by prussiate of potash, nor by muriate of ammonia, nor by hydro-sulphuret of ammonia. The carbonated alkalies produce no change; but the pure alkalies precipitate a yellow oxide, soluble in all acids that have been tried.

II. PALLADIUM. 1. The alcoholic solution (I. 1.) con-

tains the soda-muriates of palladium and platina. The latter metal may be precipitated by muriate of ammonia; and from the remaining liquid palladium may be obtained, by the addition of prussiate of potash, which occasions a sediment, at first of a deep orange colour, and changing afterwards to a dirty bottle-green, owing, probably, to the presence of iron. The precipitate is to be ignited, and purified from iron, by cupellation with borax.

2. A more simple method of obtaining palladium has since been announced by its discoverer.† To a solution of the ore of platina in nitro-muriatic acid, neutralized by evaporating the redundant acid, or by adding an alkali; and either before or after the separation of the platina by muriate of ammonia, let prussiate of mercury be added. In a short time the liquid becomes yellow, and a flocculent precipitate is gradually formed of a pale-yellowish white colour, which is the prussiate of palladium. This, on being heated, yields the metal in a pure state, in the proportion of 4-10ths or 5-10ths grain from every hundred grains of the ore.

Those who may wish to examine the properties of palladium, may now procure it in a metallic state at Messrs. Knights', Foster-Lane, London.

3. The following are the properties of palladium.

(a) Its colour resembles that of platina, except that it is of a duller white. It is malleable and ductile. Its specific gravity varies from 10.972 to 11.482. Its power of conducting caloric is nearly equal to that of platina, which it rather surpasses in expansion by heat.

(b) Exposed in an open vessel, to a greater degree of heat than is required to melt gold, no oxydizement ensues; and no degree of fusion takes place. On increasing the fire considerably, a melted button is obtained, and the specific gravity is increased to 11.871. The metal, in this state, has a greyish-white colour. Its hardness exceeds that of wrought iron. By the file it acquires the brilliancy of platina; and is malleable to a great degree.

(c) Palladium readily combines with sulphur. The

† Phil. Mag. xxii. 272, or Phil. Trans. 1805.

compound is whiter than the separate metal, and is very brittle.

(*d*) It unites with potash by fusion, and also with soda, but less remarkably. Ammonia, allowed to stand over it for some days, acquires a blueish tinge, and holds, in solution, a small portion of oxide of palladium.

(*e*) Sulphuric acid, boiled with palladium, acquires a beautiful blue colour, and dissolves a portion of the metal. The action of this acid, however, is not powerful; and it cannot be considered as a fit solvent for palladium.

(*f*) Nitric acid acts with much greater violence on palladium. It oxydizes the metal with somewhat more difficulty than silver; and, by dissolving the oxide, forms a very beautiful red solution. During this process no nitrous gas is disengaged. Nitrous acid has even a more rapid action.

(*g*) Muriatic acid, by being boiled on palladium, acts upon it, and acquires a beautiful red colour.

(*h*) But the true solvent of palladium is nitro-muriatic acid, which acts upon the metal with great violence, and yields a beautiful red solution.

(*i*) From all these acid solutions of palladium, a precipitate may be produced by alkalies and earths. These precipitates are mostly of a beautiful orange colour; are partly dissolved by some of the alkalies, and that occasioned by ammonia, when thus re-dissolved, has a fine greenish-blue colour. Sulphate, nitrate, and muriate of potash, produce an orange precipitate in the salts of palladium, as in those of platina; and the precipitates from nitrate of palladium have generally a deeper orange. All the metals, except gold, platina, and silver, cause very copious precipitates in solutions of palladium. Recent muriate of tin produces a dark-orange or brown precipitate, from neutralized salts of palladium, and is a very delicate test of this metal. Green sulphate of iron precipitates palladium in a metallic state; and, if the experiment succeed, the precipitate is about equal in weight to the palladium employed. Prussiate of potash causes an olive-coloured precipitate. The prussiate of palladium, separated by a neutral solution of prussiate of mercury, has the property, when heated to about 500° of Fahrenheit, of detonating, with a noise similar to that occasion-

ed by firing an equal quantity of gunpowder. Hydro-sulphurets, and water impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen gas, occasion a dark-brown sediment from solutions of palladium.

(k) Palladium readily combines with other metals. It has the property, in common with platina, of destroying the colour of gold, even when in a very small proportion. — Thus one part of platina, or palladium, fused with six of gold, reduces the colour of the gold nearly to that of the white metal employed.

SECT. VII.

Iridium and Osmium.

When the ore of platina has been submitted to the action of nitro-muriatic acid, a part remains undissolved, in the form of a black powder, resembling plumbago. In this substance, Mr. Tennant has lately discovered two new metals. The process, which he employed to separate them, was the following.

I. 1. The powder was fused in a silver crucible with pure soda, and the alkali then washed off with water. It had acquired a deep orange or brownish-yellow colour, but much of the powder was undissolved. The residue was digested in muriatic acid, and a dark-blue solution obtained, which afterwards became of a dusky olive-green; and, finally, by continuing the heat, of a deep-red colour. By the alternate action of the acid and alkali, the whole of the powder appeared capable of solution.

2. The alkaline solution contained the oxide of a volatile metal not yet described; and also a small portion of another metal. When the solution was kept some weeks, the latter metal separated spontaneously in thin dark-coloured flakes. The acid solution contained both metals also; but principally one, which is not altered by muriate of tin; is precipitated of a dark brown colour by pure alkali; and which exhibits, in muriatic acid, a striking variety of col

variations in its degree of oxygenization.—From this property Mr. Tennant terms it **IRIDIUM**.

3. In order to obtain muriate of iridium, free from the other metal, the acid solution (2) was evaporated, and an imperfectly crystallized mass obtained; but this, dried on blotting paper, and again dissolved and evaporated, gave distinct octohedral crystals. The watery solution of these crystals had a deep-red colour, inclining to orange. With infusion of galls no precipitation ensued; but the colour almost instantly disappeared. Muriate of tin, carbonate of soda, and prussiate of potash, had the same effect. Pure ammonia precipitated the oxide, but retained a part, and acquired a purple colour. All the metals, except gold and platina, precipitated iridium of a dark colour from the muriate, which had lost its colour.

4. Iridium was obtained pure by heating the muriate, which expelled both the acid and the oxygen. It was of a white colour, and perfectly infusible. It did not combine with sulphur or arsenic. Lead united with it, but was separated by cupellation. Copper, silver, and gold, were severally found to combine with it, and it cannot be separated from the two latter by cupellation with lead.—Its other properties remain to be examined.

II. 1. Osmium was procured in the state of an oxide, by simply distilling the alkaline solution, obtained as already described (I. 1.), along with any acid. It was even found to escape, in part, when water was added to the dry alkaline mass remaining in the crucible; and was manifested by a pungent and peculiar smell, from which property its name has been derived. The watery solution of oxide of osmium is without colour, having a sweetish taste, and the strong smell already alluded to. Another mode of obtaining, still more concentrated, the oxide of osmium, is by distilling the original black powder with nitre. A solution of oxide of osmium in water is found in the receiver, of such strength as to give a stain to the skin that cannot be effaced. The most striking test of this oxide is an infusion of galls, which presently becomes of a purple colour, and afterwards changes to a deep vivid blue. With pure ammonia, the solution becomes somewhat yellow; and slightly so with carbonate of soda. With alcohol, or still more quickly with ether, it

acquires a dark colour, and, after some time, separates in the form of black films.

2. The oxide of osmium gives up its oxygen to all the metals, excepting gold and platina. When its solution in water is shaken with mercury, the solution loses its smell; and the metal, combining with the mercury, forms an amalgam. From this, much of the redundant mercury may be separated by squeezing it through leather, which retains the amalgam of a firmer consistence. The mercury being distilled off, the osmium remains in its metallic form, of a dark-grey or blue colour. By exposure to heat, with access of air, it evaporates with its usual smell; but, if oxydation be effectually prevented, it does not seem in any degree volatile. Being subjected to a strong white heat, in a cavity made in a piece of charcoal, it is not melted, nor does it undergo any change. With gold and silver it forms malleable alloys. These are easily dissolved in nitro-muriatic acid; and by distillation give the oxide of osmium with its usual properties.

3. The pure metallic osmium, which had been previously heated, does not seem to be acted upon by acids; at least no effect is produced by boiling it some time in nitro-muriatic acid. By heating it in a silver cup with alkali, it immediately combines with the alkali, and this compound gives, with water, a yellow solution, similar to that from which it had been procured. From this solution, acids expel the oxide of osmium, having its usual smell, and possessing the property of changing to a vivid blue the infusion of galls.

Besides the black powder from which osmium is obtained, I have learned that Dr. Wollaston has discovered a separate ore of these two metals, mixed with the grains of crude platina. The specific gravity of this ore is about 19.5, and therefore exceeds that of crude platina itself, which is only 17.7. The grains are about the size of those of crude platina, but are considerably harder; are not at all malleable: and appear to consist of laminæ, possessing a peculiar lustre.

SECT. VIII.

Copper.

I. 1. Copper is oxydized by air. This may be shown by heating one end of a polished bar of copper, which will exhibit various shades of colour, according to the force of the heat.

A plate of copper, exposed for some time to heat, becomes covered with an oxide, which breaks off in scales when the copper is hammered. This oxide, when exposed on a muffle, is farther oxydized, and assumes a deep red hue. Copper is also oxydized by long exposure to a humid atmosphere, and assumes a green colour; but the green oxide holds carbonic acid in combination. These compounds do not return to a metallic state by the mere application of heat; but require, for their reduction, the admixture of inflammable matter.

2. Copper does not decompose water, which may be transmitted, in vapour, through a red-hot tube of this metal, without decomposition.

II. It combines with strong sulphuric acid, in a boiling heat, and affords a blue salt, called sulphate of copper. (a) Sulphate of copper is a regularly crystallized salt, easily dissolved by water. (b) The solution is decomposed by pure and carbonated alkalis. The former, however, re-dissolve the precipitate. Thus, on adding pure liquid ammonia to a solution of sulphate of copper, a precipitate appears, which, on a farther addition of the alkali, is re-dissolved, and affords a beautiful bright-blue solution. (c) The sulphate of copper is decomposed by iron. In a solution of this salt immerse a polished plate of iron. The iron will soon acquire a covering of copper in a metallic state. (d) It gives up its acid on the application of heat, without decomposition; and an oxide of copper remains in the retort.

III. Copper dissolves readily in diluted nitric acid; and nitrous gas is evolved in great abundance. The salt, resulting from this combination, has the singular property of detonating with tin. When to the solution of this salt, a solution of potash is added in sufficient quantity,

a blue powder is precipitated, consisting of the black oxide of copper combined with water, of which it contains 25 per cent. This substance has been called by Proust hydrate of copper; but, more properly, by Mr. Chenevix, hydro-oxide of copper. The hydro-oxides may also be formed by a similar precipitation of other metallic solutions.

IV. Concentrated and boiling muriatic acid acts on copper; and a green solution is obtained. In this salt the copper is oxydized to its maximum. It is very soluble in water, and deliquescent. Another combination of this acid and metal, in which the latter is oxydized in an inferior degree, may be obtained, by mixing, in a mortar, $57\frac{1}{2}$ parts of black oxide of copper, and 50 of copper, in fine powder (obtained by precipitation on a plate of iron,) and dissolving this mixture in muriatic acid. When this salt is poured into water, a white powder is precipitated, because the excess of acid is removed, which is essential to solution.

V. When corroded by long continued exposure to the fumes of vinegar, copper is converted into verdegris.—The verdegris of commerce consists partly of an acetate, soluble in water, and partly of a sub-acetate. By solution in distilled vinegar and evaporation, it forms regular crystals, which are completely soluble in water.—These, distilled alone, yield concentrated acetic acid, and a combination of charcoal and oxide of copper remains in the retort.

VI. When the muriate of copper is mixed with a solution of prussiate of potash or of lime, a beautiful reddish brown precipitate is obtained, which has been recommended by Mr. Hatchett as a pigment.

VII. Copper combines with sulphur. When a mixture of three parts of the metal, in the state of fine filings, with one part of sulphur, is melted in a glass tube, at the moment of combination, a brilliant inflammation ensues, exceeding, in brightness, that of iron and sulphur.

SECT. IX.

Iron.

1. 1. Iron is oxydized by the action of air, with the aid of an increased temperature, and gains about 28 per cent. The oxide thus obtained is black.

When exposed to a stronger heat, this oxide is changed into a reddish-brown one, not attracted by the magnet, and containing 40 per cent. of oxygen. Long continued exposure to a humid atmosphere covers iron with a yellow oxide, which contains also a portion of carbonic acid.

2. Iron is oxydized also by water, both at the ordinary temperature of the air, and in a high temperature.—Iron filings, moistened with water, acquire rust, and become oxydized; and the vapour of water gives up its oxygen to red-hot iron, the hydrogen being liberated in an uncombined state.

II. Iron is attacked by most acids.

The sulphuric acid, when concentrated, acts but feebly on iron without the assistance of heat. But when diluted, the iron, is first oxydized by the decomposition of the water, and this oxide is dissolved by the acid. The solution, when evaporated, gives the *sulphate of iron*, which has the following properties:

(a) It forms regular-shaped crystals, of a green colour, which have an astringent taste, and dissolve readily in water.

(b) From this combination an oxide of iron is thrown down by alkalies and by earths, varying in colour with the kind and state of the precipitant. Ammonia, added in excess, re-dissolves the precipitate.

(c) When the iron, contained in this salt, is still farther oxydized, the colour of the salt changes to red: and, if the oxydation be carried still farther, the iron becomes insoluble in sulphuric acid, affording an example of a metal soluble only when oxydized to a certain degree.—Mere exposure to air is sufficient to precipitate an oxide of iron, and the same effect is rapidly produced by adding

a little oxygenized muriate of potash to a solution of the salt.

The different states of oxydation of iron, when combined with sulphuric and other acids, have been discovered, by M. Proust, to be the foundation of essential differences in the characters of these salts. According to this ingenious chemist, there exist two varieties of sulphate of iron, the green and the red. In the green sulphate, the iron contains 27 per cent. of oxygen, in the red 48. The green salt, when pure, is soluble in alcohol; its solution is of a pale green colour; it is not altered by the gallic acid, and gives a white precipitate with prussiate of potash. The red sulphate is soluble in alcohol, and, uncrystallizable, it forms a black precipitate with the gallic acid, and a blue one with prussiates. The green sulphate may be changed into the red by long exposure to the air, by oxygenized muriatic acid, or by nitric acid. The red sulphate may be changed into the green one by agitation, in contact with sulphuretted hydrogen gas.—The common sulphate of iron is a mixture of these two in various proportions. (See *Ann. de Chimie*, vol. 23.)

(d) The sulphate of iron is decomposed by heat alone. When distilled in an earthen retort, the sulphuric acid passes over, and an oxide of iron remains in the retort.

III. Iron is acted on by the muriatic and nitric acids; and by the last, when concentrated, very violently, so that the acid undergoes a complete decomposition. The compounds, thus obtained, do not admit of being crystallized, and, like the sulphate of iron, exist in two different states, the green and the red, which vary according to the degree of oxydation of the iron. (Davy, 186.)

IV. Iron may be united, in the way of double elective affinity, with the prussic acid.† Thus, when prussiate of potash and sulphate of iron, both in solution, are mixed together, the prussic acid and oxide of iron quit their former combinations and unite together. The beautiful blue precipitate is prussiate of iron.

(a) Prussiate of iron is nearly insoluble in water.

(b) It is not soluble in acids.

(c) It is decomposed by a red heat, the prussic acid being destroyed, and an oxide of iron remaining.

† This acid will be mentioned hereafter.

(d) It is decomposed by pure alkalis and earths, which abstract the prussic acid, and leave an oxide of iron. Thus, when pure potash is digested with prussiate of iron, its beautiful blue colour disappears, and we obtain a compound of potash and prussic acid; still retaining, however, a considerable proportion of oxide of iron, which varies from 24 to 30 per cent. It is in fact, therefore, a triple prussiate of potash and iron; but as no combination of the two first is known, it may be termed, for the sake of brevity, prussiate of potash.

In Nicholson's Journal (4to, iv. 30. 171.) I have given an improved process for preparing the prussiate of potash. The following, after trying various modes of preparation, I find to afford the purest test.

1. To a solution of potash, deprived of its carbonic acid by quicklime, and heated nearly to the boiling point, in an iron kettle, add, by degrees, powdered Prussian blue till its colour ceases to be discharged. Filter the liquor, and wash the sediment with water till it ceases to extract any thing; let the washings be all mixed together, and placed in an earthen dish in a sand-heat.—When the solution has become hot, add a little dilute sulphuric acid, and continue the heat for about an hour. A copious precipitate will be formed of Prussian blue.—Let this be separated by filtration, and assay a small quantity of the filtered liquor in a wine-glass, with a little dilute sulphuric acid. If an abundant production of Prussian blue should still take place, fresh sulphuric acid must be added to the whole liquor, which must again, with this addition, be exposed to heat. These filtrations and additions of sulphuric acid must be repeated as long as any considerable quantity of Prussian blue is produced; but when this ceases, the liquor may finally be passed through a filter.

2. Prepare a solution of sulphate of copper in about four or six times its weight of warm water, and into the solution (1.) pour this, as long as a reddish brown or copper-coloured sediment continues to appear. Wash this sediment, which is a prussiate of copper, with repeated affusions of warm water; and when these come off colourless, lay the precipitate on a linen filter to drain, after which it may be dried on a chalk-stone.

3. Powder the precipitate, when dry, and add it by

degrees to a solution of pure potash, prepared as described, p. 86. The prussic acid will leave the oxide of copper and pass to the alkali, forming a prussiate of potash as free from iron as it can be obtained.

4. But as the salt still contains sulphate of potash, a portion of this may be separated by gentle evaporation, the sulphate crystallizing first. To the liquor remaining, add a solution of barytes in warm water (p. 90.) as long as a white precipitate ensues, observing not to add more after its cessation. The solution of prussiate is now free, in a great measure, from iron, and entirely from sulphates; and, by gentle evaporation, will form, on cooling, beautiful crystals. A solution of these in cold water affords the purest prussiate of potash that can be prepared.

For the vegetable alkali, either soda or ammonia may be substituted in the above process, if they be preferred. If a sufficient quantity of pure barytes cannot be had, the sulphate may be precipitated by acetate of barytes. The acetate of potash, thus formed, not being a crystallizable salt, remains in the mother-liquor.

5. When the prussiate of potash is mixed with sulphate of iron, in which the metal is as little oxydized as possible, the prussiate of iron that is formed is of a white colour, but gradually becomes blue, as the iron, by exposure to air, acquires more oxygen. (See Proust's Memoir, in Nicholson's Journal.)

6. The effect of a sympathetic ink may be obtained, by writing with a pen dipped in a very dilute solution of prussiate of potash. No characters will appear till the paper is moistened with sulphate of iron, when letters of a Prussian blue colour will be apparent. The experiment may be reversed, by writing with sulphate of iron, and rendering the characters legible by prussiate of potash.

V. When sulphate of iron is mixed with an infusion of galls, we obtain a black solution, which is a new combination of oxide of iron, with the gallic acid and tan. The gallate and tannate of iron are, therefore, essential constituents of inks; the other ingredients of which are chiefly added with the view of keeping these suspended.

In order that the iron may unite with the gallic acid and tan, it must be combined with the sulphuric acid in the state of red oxide; for the less oxydized iron, in the

green salt, does not form a black compound with these substances. Iron filings, however, dissolve in an infusion of galls with an extrication of hydrogen gas; but the compound is not black till after exposure to air, which oxydizes the iron still farther. This solution with a sufficient quantity of gum, forms an excellent ink.

On the same principle may be explained the effect of metallic iron in destroying the colour of ink. When ink is digested with iron filings, and frequently shaken, its colour decays; and it also becomes colourless after having a stream of sulphuretted hydrogen gas passed through it. In both these cases the oxide of iron is partly de-oxydized. Characters written with ink, after this treatment, are at first illegible, but become black as the iron acquires oxygen from the air.

(a) Write upon paper with an infusion of galls. The characters will not be legible till a solution of sulphate of iron is applied. This experiment may be reversed like the preceding one. (IV. 6.)

(b) The combination of iron, forming ink, is destroyed by pure and carbonated alkalies. Apply a solution of alkali to characters written with common ink, the blackness will disappear, and the characters will become brown, an oxide of iron only remaining on the paper.

Alkalies, added cautiously to liquid ink, precipitate the black combination, but an excess re-dissolves the precipitate.

(c) Characters which have been thus defaced, may again be rendered legible by an infusion of galls.

(d) Ink is decomposed by most acids, which separate the oxide of iron from the gallic acid in consequence of a stronger affinity. Hence ink-stains are removed by dilute muriatic acid, and by some vegetable acids. Hence, also, if to a saturated solution of sulphate of iron there be added an excess of acid, the precipitate no longer appears on adding infusion of galls.

When a mixture of ink is heated with nitric acid, the yellow oxalate of iron is formed, and is precipitated on adding pure ammonia.

(e) Ink is decomposed by age, partly in consequence of the farther oxydation of the iron, and partly, perhaps, in consequence of the decay, or escape, of the acid of galls. Hence ink-stains degenerate into iron-moulds,

and these last are immediately produced on an inked spot of linen when washed with soap, because the alkali of the soap abstracts the gallic acid, and leaves only an oxide of iron.

(f) Ink is decomposed by oxygenized muriatic acid, which destroys the gallic acid, and the resulting muriatic acid dissolves the oxide of iron.

As all writing inks, into the composition of which iron enters, are liable to decay by time, and to be destroyed by various agents, an ink has been proposed by Mr. Close, the basis of which is similar to that of printing ink.—Take oil of lavender 200 grains, gum copal, in powder, 25 grains, and lamp-black from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 grains. With the aid of a gentle heat dissolve the copal in the oil of lavender, in a small vial, and then mix the lamp-black with the solution, on a marble slab, or other smooth surface. After a repose of some hours, the ink must be shaken before use, or stirred with an iron wire, and, if too thick, must be diluted with a little oil of lavender. (See Nicholson's Journal, 8vo. ii. 145.) This ink I have found extremely useful in writing labels for bottles containing acids, or which are exposed to acid fumes in a laboratory.

VI. Iron is dissolved by water impregnated with carbonic acid. A few iron filings, when added to a bottle of aerated water, and occasionally shaken up, impregnate the water with this metal. The solution is decomposed by boiling, and in a less degree by exposure to air.

VII. Iron combines with sulphur, and affords compounds; the characters of which vary greatly according to the proportions existing in them. (a) A paste of iron filings, sulphur, and water, if in sufficient quantity, will burst, after some time, into flame. (b) A mixture of one part of iron filings and three parts of sulphur, accurately mixed, and melted in a glass tube, at the moment of union exhibit a brilliant combustion. (N. 33.) (c) This sulphuret of iron, when moistened, rapidly decomposes oxygen gas. (d) When diluted sulphuric or muriatic acid is poured on it, we obtain sulphuretted hydrogen gas.

These sulphurets are magnetic, unless they contain sulphur to the amount of 46 per cent.

VIII. Iron combines with carbon in various proportions; and the variety of proportion occasions very diffe-

rent properties in the compound. On these varieties, and the occasional combination of a small proportion of oxygen, depend the qualities of the different kinds of iron used in the arts, as cast-iron, steel, &c. &c. A distinct enumeration of these varieties, which would be foreign to the purpose of this work, may be found in Parkinson's Chemical Pocket-book, or in Thomson's Chemistry, vol. 1. p. 166. The quantity of carbon, in the sub-carburets of iron, may be determined by solution in sulphurous acid, which dissolves the iron and sulphur, and has no action on carbon. An ingenious mode, also, employed by Mr. Mushet, consists in ascertaining the quantity of litharge, which a given quantity of the iron under examination is capable of reducing, by fusion, to a metallic state.

Another combination of iron and carbon, which is a true carburet of iron, is the substance called *plumbago*, or black lead, used in fabricating pencils, and in covering iron. By exposure to the combined action of heat and air, the carbon is burned off, and the oxide of iron remains. When mingled also with powdered nitrate of potash, and thrown into a crucible, a deflagration ensues; and an oxide of iron, equal to about 1-10th the weight of the plumbago, may be obtained by washing off the alkali of the nitre.

SECT. X.

Nickel.

I. To obtain nickel in a state of purity, the metal usually sold under that name must be dissolved in diluted nitric acid; the solution, evaporated to dryness; and the dry mass must again, for three or four times, be alternately dissolved in the acid, and boiled to dryness. After the last evaporation, the mass must be dissolved in a solution of pure ammonia; which has been proved, by its occasioning no precipitation from muriate of lime, to contain no carbonic acid. The solution is next to be evaporated to dryness; and, after being well mixed with twice or thrice its weight of black flux, is to be exposed to a vio-

lent heat in a crucible for half or three quarters of an hour.

Another process for purifying nickel, is given by Richter, in Nicholson's Journal, xii. 75. Its properties, in this state of purity, he describes as follows:

1. Its colour is intermediate between those of silver and tin.

2. It is not oxydized by exposure to the air.

3. It is perfectly malleable; may be forged into bars when hot; and hammered into plates when cold. When cast, its specific gravity is 8.279; and when forged, 8.666.

4. In infusibility it appears to equal manganese.

5. In a sufficiently high temperature, its oxides are reducible without addition; nor is it more tarnished by a strong heat than gold, silver, or platina. It ranks, therefore, among the noble or perfect metals.

6. The magnet not only acts on nickel, with a force little inferior to what it exerts on iron; but nickel itself acquires polarity in the usual modes.

7. The sulphuric and muriatic acids have little action on nickel. Its appropriate solvents are the nitric and nitro-muriatic acids. The nitric solution has a beautiful grass-green colour. Carbonate of potash throws down an apple-green precipitate, which assumes a dark-grey colour when heated.

8. When pure ammonia is added to nitrate of nickel, a precipitate is formed, resembling that from a solution of copper, but not so deep. This colour changes, in an hour or two, to an amethyst red, and to a violet; which colours are converted to apple-green by an acid, and again to blue and violet by ammonia. If the precipitate retain its blue colour, the presence of copper is indicated. (See Richter, in Nich. Journ. xii.)

9. From the solutions of nickel, prussiate of potash throws down a sea-green precipitate.

10. Tincture of galls produces no change in these solutions.

11. The solution does not deposit its metal either on polished iron or zinc, when immersed in it. (See Klaproth's Analytical Essays, vol. 1. p. 433.)

SECT. XI.

Tin.

The properties of tin must be examined in the state of block tin; what is commonly known by the name of tin, being nothing more than iron plates with a thin covering of this metal.

I. Tin melts on the application of a moderate heat; by a long continuance of which it is converted into a grey powder. This powder, when mixed with pure glass, forms a white enamel.

II. Tin is not oxydized by exposure to air with the concurrence of moisture; a property which is the foundation of its use in covering iron.

III. Tin amalgamates readily with mercury; and this compound is much used in the silvering of looking-glasses. It is formed by adding gradually three parts of mercury to twelve of tin melted in an iron ladle, and stirring the mixture.

IV. Tin dissolves in sulphuric acid, which takes up, when concentrated and heated, half its weight. It is dissolved also by this acid, diluted with a small proportion of water, and heated. During both these processes, sulphurous acid is disengaged; and in the latter, a pellicle of sulphur forms on the surface of the solution, which precipitates on cooling.

V. Concentrated nitric acid attacks tin with great violence; and an imperfectly saturated solution is obtained. The diluted acid oxydizes tin, which, at the same moment, decomposes both the acid and water; and the azote and hydrogen, uniting, constitute ammonia.

VI. Muriatic acid, undiluted, is the proper solvent of tin. To one part of tin, in a tubulated retort, two parts of concentrated muriatic acid are to be added, and heat applied. The solution is complete; and, when finished, the liquid has an amber colour, and an offensive smell.—This solution is applied to important purposes in the art of dyeing. It has the property of reducing, to a minimum of oxydizement, those compounds of iron in which the metal is fully oxydized. For example, it reduces the

yellow sulphate to the green. It is a test also of gold and platina, as already noticed.

VII. Tin may be brought to combine with the oxygenized muriatic acid, by first forming it into amalgam with mercury, triturating this with an equal weight of muriate of mercury, and distilling the mixture. The result is a liquid which emits dense white fumes, when exposed to the air, and was formerly termed the fuming liquor of Libavius.

This compound, according to the researches of Adet, is an oxygenized muriate of tin, perfectly free from water, and having a strong affinity for that fluid. Hence arises its fuming property; for the white vapours, which exhale when the bottle is unstopped, arise from the union of the salt with the humidity of the air.

VIII. The oxide of tin, combined with sulphur, affords a compound of a bright gold colour and lustre, which has hence been termed *aurum musivum*.

SECT. XII.

Lead.

I. 1. Lead, when melted, and exposed to the action of the air, becomes covered with a pellicle of oxide. By long-continued exposure to heat, it is converted into oxides of different colours. This oxydation it is difficult to exhibit on a small scale. The oxides of lead may, therefore, be examined as they are found in the shops, in the states of minium, or red lead, massicot, and litharge.†

2. The oxides of lead give up their oxygen on the application of heat. (N. 34.) When distilled in an earthen retort, they afford oxygen gas; and still more readily when distilled with the sulphuric acid.

To obtain oxygen gas, concentrated sulphuric acid may be poured on the red oxide of lead, contained in a gas-bottle, and a gentle heat applied. The gas, thus obtained, after being agitated with water, is sufficiently pure for common purposes.

† For fuller information respecting the oxides of lead, consult Nick. Journ. viii. 280.

3. The oxides of lead are also reduced, by being ignited with combustible matter. Thus, when a mixture of red oxide of lead and charcoal is made red-hot in a crucible, a button of metallic lead will be found at the bottom of the vessel.

II. Pure water has no action on lead; but it takes up a small proportion of the oxide of that metal. When left in contact with water, and with the access of atmospheric air, lead soon becomes oxidized and dissolved, especially if agitation be used. Hence the danger of leaden pipes and vessels for containing water, which is intended for drink. Water appears also to act more readily on lead, when impregnated with the neutral salts that are occasionally present in spring-water.†

III. Of all the acids the nitric acts most strongly on lead, nitrous gas being disengaged during the solution.—A portion of the lead, however, forms an insoluble grey powder, which is probably lead oxydized in too great a degree to be soluble in the acid. From this solution, sulphuric and muriatic acids throw down an insoluble precipitate. The muriate of lead, after being washed in distilled water and dried, and then fused in a crucible, forms a substance, which has the semi-transparency and tenacity of horn, and is called *plumbum corneum*.

IV. The oxides of lead decompose muriate of soda.—Mix two parts of finely powdered red lead with one of common salt, and form the whole into a paste with water, adding more, occasionally, as the mixture becomes dry. The alkali will be disengaged, and the muriatic acid will unite with the oxide of lead. Wash off the alkali, dry the white mass, and fuse it in a crucible. It will form the pigment called mineral, or patent yellow.

V. Lead, when exposed to the vapour of vinegar, is slowly corroded into a sub-acetate. This, when dissolved in distilled vinegar and crystallized, forms acetate of lead, or sugar of lead. This acetate of lead, and indeed all the soluble salts of lead, are decomposed by sulphuretted hydrogen gas. Hence characters, written with acetate of lead, become legible on exposure to sulphuretted hydrogen gas.

VI. The oxides of lead have the property of uniting

† On the presence of lead in water, consult Dr. Lamb's "Researches respecting Spring Water," 8vo. London. Johnson.

with silver by fusion; and, when added to the ingredients of glass, they increase its transparency, and render it less brittle, so as to admit of being ground and polished. Hence an oxide of lead is an essential constituent of flint-glass.

SECT. XIII.

*Zinc.**

I. Zinc is melted by a moderate heat; and the fused mass, on cooling, forms regular crystals.

II. Though scarcely altered by exposure to the air at a low temperature, yet it is rapidly oxydized by one amounting to ignition.

When kept in a degree of heat, barely sufficient for its fusion, zinc becomes covered with a grey oxide. But when thrown into a crucible, or deep earthen pot, heated to whiteness, it suddenly inflames; burns with a beautiful white flame; and a white and light oxide sublimes, having a considerable resemblance to carded wool. This oxide, however, when once deposited, is no longer volatile; but, if exposed to a violent heat, runs into glass.

III. Zinc readily dissolves in sulphuric, nitric, and muriatic acids. With nitric acids, it yields nitrous gas, if the acid be concentrated; or nitrous oxide, if diluted. Sulphuric and muriatic acids, diluted with water, evolve, during their action on this metal, hydrogen gas; and the gas, when obtained, holds in combination a portion of the metal. A stream of it, burned in Cuthbertson's apparatus (Pl. IV. fig. 34.) has been found, if recently prepared, to occasion the fusion of the platina wire, though the pure gas is destitute of this property. This hydrogen gas, holding zinc in solution, may also be obtained by a process of Vauquelin. A mixture of the ore of zinc, called blende, or calamine, with charcoal, is to be put into a porcelain tube, which is to be placed horizontally in a furnace, and, when red-hot, the vapour of water is to be driven over it. The gas, that is produced, however, is a mixture of carbonic acid, carburetted hydrogen, and hy-

* The discovery of the malleability of zinc, when heated, is announced in Phil. Mag. vol. xxiii.

dro-zincic gas. The zinc is deposited on the surface of the water, by which this gas is confined; but, if burned when recently prepared, the gas exhibits, in consequence of this impregnation, a blue flame.

IV. The solution of zinc in sulphuric acid shoots into regular crystals. This salt is readily soluble; and its solution is not precipitated by any other metal. The muriate of zinc yields, when evaporated, an extract of thick consistence, having the viscosity of bird-lime.

V. Zinc is oxydized also, when boiled with solutions of pure alkalies; and a portion of the oxide is retained in solution.

VI. It is oxydized when mixed with nitre, and projected into a red-hot crucible. In this case a violent detonation ensues.



SECOND CLASS.

METALS THAT ARE BRITTLE AND EASILY FUSED.

SECT. XIV.

Bismuth.

I. Bismuth is one of the most fusible metals; and it forms, more readily than most other metals, distinct crystals by slow cooling.

II. When kept melted at a moderate heat, it becomes covered with an oxide of a greenish-grey or brown colour. In a more violent heat it is volatile, and may be sublimed in close vessels; but, with the access of air, it emits a blue flame, and its oxide exhales in a yellowish smoke, condensable by cold bodies. This oxide is very fusible; and is convertible, by heat, into a yellow transparent glass.

III. Sulphuric acid acts on bismuth, and sulphurous acid is disengaged. A part of the bismuth is dissolved; and the remainder is changed into an insoluble oxide.

IV. Nitric acid dissolves bismuth with great rapidity. To one part and a half of nitric acid, at distant intervals, add one of bismuth, broken into small pieces. The solution is crystallizable. It is decomposed when added to water; and a white substance is precipitated, called magistery of bismuth, or pearl-white. This pigment is defective, inasmuch as it is liable to be changed by sulphuretted hydrogen, and by the vapours of putrefying substances in general.

V. Muriatic acid acts on bismuth. The compound, when deprived of water by evaporation, is capable of being sublimed, and affords a soft salt, which deliquesces into what has been improperly called butter of bismuth.

VI. Bismuth is capable of forming the basis of a sympathetic ink. The acid, employed for this purpose, must be one that does not act on paper, such as the acetic. Characters written with this solution become visible, when exposed to sulphuretted hydrogen.

SECT. XV.

Antimony.

I. Antimony, as it occurs under that name in the shops, is a natural compound of the metal with sulphur. To obtain it in a metallic state, the native sulphuret is to be mixed with two-thirds its weight of acidulous tartrate of potash (in the state of crude tartar,) and one-third of nitrate of potash deprived of its water of crystallization. The mixture must be projected, by spoonfuls, into a red-hot crucible; and the detonated mass poured into an iron mould greased with a little fat. The antimony, on account of its specific gravity, will be found at the bottom adhering to the scoriæ, from which it may be separated by the hammer. Or three parts of the sulphuret may be fused in a covered crucible with one of iron filings. The sulphur quits the antimony, and combines with the iron.

II. Antimony in its metallic state (sometimes called *re-*

H h

gulus of antimony) is of a silvery white colour, very brittle, and of a plated or scaly texture.

III. It is fused by a moderate heat; and crystallizes, on cooling, in the form of pyramids. In close vessels it may be volatilized, and collected unchanged.

IV. It undergoes little change when exposed to the atmosphere at its ordinary temperature, but when fused, with the access of air, it emits white fumes, consisting of an oxide of the metal. This oxide had formerly the name of *flowers of antimony*.

V. Antimony combines with phosphorus and sulphur. With the latter an artificial sulphuret is formed, exactly resembling the native compound, which last may be employed, on account of its cheapness, for exhibiting the properties of this combination of antimony.

1. When native sulphuret of antimony (frequently called crude antimony) is slowly roasted in a shallow vessel, it gradually loses its sulphur, the metal attracts oxygen, and is converted into a grey oxide. This, being melted in a strong heat, acquires a reddish colour, and runs into a glassy substance, transparent at its edges, and termed *glass of antimony*.*

2. When fused with potash, a triple compound is formed, composed of alkali, sulphur, and antimony. Or the combination may be effected, in the humid way, by boiling the powdered native sulphuret with pure potash. The solution, on cooling, deposits an hydro-sulphuretted oxide, in which the oxide prevails, called *Kermes mineral*. The addition of a dilute acid to the cold solution, precipitates a compound, having the same ingredients, but a larger proportion of sulphur, and called *golden sulphur of antimony*.

3. When the sulphuret of antimony is detonated with powdered nitre, the sulphur is oxygenated by the oxygen of the nitric acid; sulphate of potash is formed, and an oxide of antimony is obtained, varying in its degree of oxygenizement, with the proportion of nitre employed. The oxide remains, after washing away the sulphate with boiling water. If four times its weight of nitre be employed, the metal gains 32 per cent. of oxygen, and ac-

* Glass of antimony Vauquelin finds to contain 12 per cent. of silica

quires somewhat of the character of an acid ; since it forms, with potash, a crystallizable compound.

VI. Antimony is dissolved by most of the acids. Sulphuric acid is decomposed ; sulphurous acid being disengaged, and an oxide formed, of which a small proportion only is dissolved by the remaining acid. Nitric acid dissolves this metal with great vehemence ; muriatic acid acts on it by long digestion ; but the most convenient solvent is the nitro-muriatic acid, which, with the aid of heat, dissolves it from the native sulphuret. With oxygenized muriatic acid, it forms a compound of a thick consistence, formerly called butter of antimony. This may be formed, by exposing black sulphuret of antimony to the fumes of oxygenized muriatic acid, and subsequent distillation ; or by distilling the powdered regulus with twice its weight of corrosive muriate of mercury. The metal becomes highly oxydized, and unites with muriatic acid, in its simple state. On pouring this compound into water, a white oxide falls down, called powder of algaroth.

VII. Antimony is susceptible of various states of oxydizement. The first oxide may be obtained by washing algaroth powder with a little caustic potash. It is composed of $18\frac{1}{2}$ oxygen, and $81\frac{1}{2}$ metal. That formed by the action of nitric acid on antimony contains 77 metal, and 23 oxygen.

SECT. XVI.

Tellurium.

I. Tellurium was discovered, by Klaproth (Contributions, II. 1.) in an ore of gold. His process, for extracting it, consists in the solution of the ore by nitro-muriatic acid, diluted with water, and the addition of pure potash, which throws down all the metals that are present ; and, when added in excess, re-dissolves a white precipitate, which it at first occasions. To the alkaline solution, muriatic acid is then added ; a precipitate again appears ; and this, when dried, and heated with 1-12th its weight of charcoal, or with a small quantity of oil, in a glass retort, yields tellurium, in the form of small brilliant metallic drops, lining the upper part of the body of the retort.—

One hundred parts of the ore yield above 90 of tellurium.

II. 1. The colour of this metal is tin-white, verging to lead-grey; it has considerable lustre, and a foliated or scaly fracture. It is very brittle; is fusible at a temperature below ignition; and, excepting osmium and quicksilver, is the most volatile of all metals. It is the lightest of the metals, having the specific gravity of only 6.185.

2. It is oxydized when heated in contact with air; and burns with a sky-blue flame, edged with green. Upon charcoal, before the blow-pipe, it inflames with a violence resembling detonation; exhibits a vivid flame; and entirely flies off in a grey smoke, having a peculiarly nauseous smell. Its oxide is not reduced without the addition of combustible matter.

3. It is soluble in nitric and nitro-muriatic acids. The saturated solution is decomposed by the mere addition of water, which throws down a white powder; but this is again dissolved on adding more water. From its solutions it is precipitated in a metallic form, by iron, zinc, tin, and even by muriate of tin. Carbonated and pure alkalis precipitate the telluric oxide of a white colour; and the oxide is re-dissolved by an excess of alkali or carbonate. Alkaline sulphurets throw down a dark-brown or blackish precipitate. Tincture of galls produces a flocculent yellow precipitate. The solutions of this metal in acids are not decomposed by prussiate of potash, a property which tellurium possesses in common with gold, platina, iridium, osmium, rhodium, and antimony.

SECT. XVII.

Arsenic.

I. Arsenic, as it is to be found in the shops, occurs in the state of a white oxide, from which the metal may be obtained by the following process. Mix two parts of the white oxide with one part of black flux (prepared by detonating, in a crucible, one part of nitre with two of crystals of tartar,) and put the mixture into a crucible. Invert over this another crucible, lute the two together,

by a mixture of clay and sand; and apply a red heat to the lower one. The arsenic will be reduced; and will be found lining the inside of the upper crucible in a state of metallic brilliancy.

II. Arsenic is oxydized by mere exposure to the atmosphere. It soon becomes tarnished; loses its metallic lustre; and is changed into a blackish oxide.

III. It is readily fusible, and is volatilized at 356° . In close vessels it may be collected unchanged; but when thrown on a red-hot iron, it burns with a blue flame and a white smoke; and a strong smell of garlic is perceived.

IV. All the mineral acids act on arsenic; but not considerably, unless they are heated. In the oxygenized muriatic acid gas, however, arsenic burns vehemently.

V. A mixture of oxy-muriate of potash and arsenic furnishes a detonating compound, which takes fire with the rapidity of lightning. The salt and metal, first separately powdered, may be mixed by the gentlest possible triture, or rather by stirring them together on paper with a knife point. If two long trains be laid on a table, the one of gunpowder and the other of this mixture, and they be in contact with each other at one end, so that they may be fired at once, the arsenical mixture burns with the rapidity of lightning, while the other burns with comparatively extreme slowness.

VI. Arsenic has the property of giving a white stain to copper. Let a small bit of metallic arsenic be put between two small plates of copper; bind these closely together with iron wire; and heat them, barely to redness, in the fire. The inside of the copper plates will be stained white.

VII. The white oxide of arsenic has the following properties:

1. It has an acrid taste, and is highly poisonous.

2. It is soluble in water, which, at the ordinary temperature, takes up 1-80th. According to La Grange, it is soluble in 1-24th of cold water, or 1-15th of hot.

3. Oxide of arsenic combines with the pure alkalies to saturation; and hence it fulfils one of the principal functions of an acid. It has therefore been called *arsenous acid*, and its compounds *arsenites*. They may be formed by simply boiling the acid with a pure alkaline solution.

4. The arsenous acid, by distillation with sulphur, af-

fords either a yellow substance, called orpiment, or a red one, termed realgar. Both these compounds are sulphuretted oxides of arsenic, varying in the proportion of their components. The hydro-sulphurets, also, throw down a yellow precipitate from solutions of arsenous acid. Sulphate of copper, mixed with arsenite of potash, gives a beautiful precipitate, called, from its discoverer, Scheele's green.

5. By repeated distillation with nitric acid, arsenous acid is changed into *arsenic acid*. The same change is effected, also, by exposure to the vapour of oxygenized muriatic acid, and the expulsion, by heat, of the common muriatic acid. By both these processes, a white concrete substance is obtained, termed arsenic acid.

VIII. 1. The arsenic acid has a sour, and at the same time, a metallic taste. It reddens vegetable blues; attracts humidity from the atmosphere, and effervesces strongly with solutions of alkaline carbonates. With alkalies, earths, and oxides, it constitutes a class of salts called arsenates. The arsenate of potash may be obtained in a more simple manner, by detonating, in a crucible, a mixture of nitrate of potash with arsenous acid.

2. When tin is dissolved in arsenic acid, an inflammable gas is disengaged, as was observed by Scheele, consisting of hydrogen gas, holding arsenic in solution. It may be obtained, also, by adding powdered metallic arsenic to a mixture of diluted sulphuric acid and zinc filings.

The gas has the following properties:

(a) It is a permanently elastic and invisible fluid, of the specific gravity, compared with common air, of 0.5293.

(b) It has a fetid smell, resembling that of garlic.

(c) It extinguishes burning bodies.

(d) It is not absorbed by water in any notable degree; and has no effect on the blue colours of vegetables.

(e) It burns with a lambent white flame, and a disagreeable odour; and emits, during combustion, fumes of arsenous acid.

(f) When mingled with oxygenized muriatic acid gas, heat is produced, a diminution ensues, and metallic arsenic is deposited. Soap bubbles, blown with a mixture of this and oxygen gases, burn with a blue flame, a white smoke, and a strong alliaceous smell.

(g) A stream of arsenated hydrogen gas, issuing from a bladder fitted with a stop-cock, and set on fire in a large receiver filled with oxygen, burns with a blue flame of uncommon splendour.

(h) One cubic inch of the gas contains about 1-4th of a grain of metallic arsenic.

For its remaining properties, consult Tromsdorff's Memoir in Nich. Journ. vi. 200.

THIRD CLASS.

BRITTLE, AND DIFFICULTLY FUSED.

SECT. XVIII.

Cobalt.

I. Cobalt may either be obtained from a substance, which may be purchased under the name of zaffre, by fusing the zaffre with three times its weight of black flux; or it may be purchased at a moderate price, in a metallic form.

To obtain cobalt in a perfectly pure state, Tromsdorff recommends that the zaffre should be, three times successively, detonated with one-fourth its weight of dry nitre, and one-eighth of powdered charcoal. After the last of these operations, the mass is to be mixed with an equal weight of black flux, and the cobalt reduced. The metal is then pulverized, and detonated with thrice its weight of dried nitre. This oxydizes the iron to its maximum; and acidifies the arsenic; which last unites with the potash. Wash off the arsenate of potash, and digest the residue in nitric acid. This will take up the oxide of cobalt, and leave the oxide of iron. Evaporate to dryness; re-dissolve in nitric acid; filter the solution; and decompose it by a solution of potash. The oxide of

cobalt, now obtained, may be reduced by the black flux, as before directed.

II. Cobalt has a white colour, inclining somewhat to pink. By exposure to the atmosphere it is tarnished, but not oxydized to any extent. In an intense heat it burns with a red flame; but, if pure, it is not easily oxydized by a moderate temperature. Its oxide is of a deep blue, approaching to black.

III. Cobalt is magnetic; at least this property is generally imputed to it even by late writers; but Mr. Che-nevix suspects that it is owing to the presence of a small admixture of iron.

IV. The best solvents of cobalt are the nitric and nitro-muriatic acids; and the solutions have the singular property of forming sympathetic inks. One part of cobalt, or, still better, of zaffre, may be digested, in a sand heat, for some hours, with four parts of nitric acid. To the solution, add one part of muriate of soda; and dilute with four parts of water. Characters written with this solution are illegible when cold; but, when a gentle heat is applied, they assume a beautiful blue or green colour.* This experiment is rendered more amusing, by drawing the trunk and branches of a tree in the ordinary manner, and tracing the leaves with a solution of cobalt. The tree appears leafless, till the paper is heated, when it suddenly becomes covered with beautiful foliage.

V. Oxide of cobalt is precipitated by carbonated alkalis from the nitric solution, at first of a peach-flower colour, and afterwards of a lilac hue.

VI. Oxalic acid throws down, from solutions of cobalt, a rose-coloured precipitate.

Cobalt, when oxydized, is the basis of zaffre. This is generally prepared by roasting, from the ore, its volatile ingredients; and mixing with the remainder three parts of sand, or calcined flints. Zaffre, when fused, forms a blue glass; which, when ground and washed, is the substance termed smalta, used as a colouring substance, and for imparting a blue colour to glass.

* For some ingenious speculations on the cause of these phenomena, consult Mr. Hatchett's paper on the Carinthian molybdate of lead. Phil. Trans. 1796.

SECT. XIX.

Manganese.

I. Manganese never occurs in a metallic state; the black substance, known by that name, being a compound of manganese, with a large proportion of oxygen. The metal is obtained, by mixing this oxide, finely powdered, with pitch, making it into a ball, and putting this into a crucible, with powdered charcoal, 1-10th of an inch thick on the sides, and 1-4th of an inch deep at the bottom. The empty space is then to be filled with powdered charcoal, a cover is to be luted on, and the crucible exposed, for one hour, to the strongest heat that can be raised.

II. This metal is of a dusky-white colour, and bright and shining in its fracture. When exposed to the air it soon crumbles into a blackish brown powder, in consequence of its oxydation.

When heated with the access of air, it passes through successive shades of black, and finally acquires a green colour. (La Grange, ii. 64.)

III. The metal is soluble in acids, but most readily in the nitrous. The muriatic solution is precipitated by the addition of water only. It is precipitated by alkalies in the form of a white powder.

IV. The black oxide of manganese gives up its oxygen when distilled alone in a retort, or still more readily and abundantly, if distilled with a mixture of sulphuric acid.

V. The black oxide of manganese is dissolved by the muriatic acid; but, before solution, it yields part of its oxygen to one portion of the muriatic acid, which escapes in an oxygenized state, (See Chap. xiii.) The solution has a brownish colour. Alkalies throw down from it a white precipitate, which, by exposure to the air, becomes yellow, and finally black.

VI. The black oxide contains too much oxygen to dissolve in nitric acid; but when, to a portion of this acid, in contact with the oxide, a little sugar is added, and heat is applied, the oxide is dissolved.

VII. The black oxide of manganese imparts to borate

of soda, when melted with it, a violet colour. When this is effected by the blow-pipe, the colour may be destroyed by the interior flame, and again re-produced by the exterior one, or by a small particle of nitre. (See Klaproth, vol. i. p. 243. a.)

VIII. When powdered manganese and nitre are mixed together, and thrown into a red-hot crucible, the nitric acid is decomposed, and we obtain a compound of highly-oxidized manganese with potash. This compound has the singular property of exhibiting different colours, according to the quantity of water that is added to it. A small quantity gives a green solution; a farther addition changes it to a blue; more still to a purple; and a still larger quantity to a beautiful deep purple.

The experiment may be varied, by putting equal quantities of this substance into two separate glass vessels, and pouring on the one hot, and on the other cold, water. —The hot solution has a beautiful green colour, and the cold one is of a deep purple. The same material, with water of different temperatures, assumes various shades of colour, depending on the state of oxidizement of the metal. Hence this has been termed the chameleon mineral. This property is destroyed by a very small quantity of sulphuret of potash.

IX. The rose-colour of solutions of manganese, in sulphuric and phosphoric acids, is destroyed by exposure to the light of the sun, and restored when removed into darkness. This effect depends on the de-oxidation of the metal by the sun's rays.

SECT. XX.

Chrome.

This metal is found in an acidified state, and combined with oxide of lead, in the red-lead ore of Siberia; in the state of an oxide, in the green ore accompanying the red one; and in the emerald, to which it communicates its green colour.

I. To separate the chromic acid, the red-lead ore, reduced to powder, is boiled with twice its weight of carbonate

of potash. An orange-yellow solution, composed of potash and chromic acid, is thus obtained; and when, to this, a mineral acid is added, and the liquor is evaporated, we obtain, 1. the salt formed by the acid, which has been united with the potash; 2. the acid of chrome, in long ruby-coloured prisms. From this acid the chrome may be obtained by heating it with charcoal, in the manner already often described. In the crucible, a metallic mass is found, of a greyish-white colour, formed of a number of needles crossing each other.

II. This metal is very brittle, infusible, and fixed.

III. It is susceptible of three states of oxydizement.—The first oxide is green, the second brown, and a further dose of oxygen gives the chromic acid.

IV. The nitric acid alone exerts any remarkable action on this metal. Repeated distillation, with this acid, changes chrome into chromic acid, combinable with alkalies. The chromates of alkalies precipitate the salts of lead, of a beautiful yellow colour; which, if it could be procured in sufficient quantity, would be highly valuable in painting. Mercury is thrown down, of a cinnabar-red colour; silver, of a carmine-red; and all its metallic combinations are distinguished by peculiar brilliancy of colour. The emerald derives its colour from the *oxide* of chrome; and the ruby from the *acid*. This property of imparting colour has suggested its name.

SECT. XXI.

Molybdena.

I. The ore of molybdena was long mistaken for plumbago, or carburet of iron, to which it bears, externally, a strong resemblance. It is, in fact, a combination of sulphur and the oxide of molybdena. These two components may be separated, by repeated distillation with nitric acid. To the ore of molybdena, in a retort, six times its weight of nitric acid are to be added, and the mixture distilled to dryness. This process must be repeated four or five times; and, at its close, both the sulphur and molybdena will be acidified. The sulphuric acid

is expelled by heating the mass in a crucible; and any remaining portions are to be washed off with distilled water. The residue is a white heavy powder; which has an acid and metallic taste; is soluble in 560 parts of water; and forms salts with the alkalies and earths. The acid is reduced by making it into a paste with oil, and exposing it, bedded in charcoal in a crucible, to an intense heat.

II. Molybdena has a whitish yellow colour, but its fracture is a whitish grey. It has not hitherto, been obtained in any form, but that of small brittle grains. It is almost infusible by any artificial heat.

III. It is readily oxydized when heated in contact with air, and is converted into a white oxide, which is volatilized in small brilliant needle-shaped crystals. This oxide has acid properties.

IV. According to Mr. Hatchett's experiments, molybdena may be oxydized in four different degrees. 1. A black oxide is obtained from molybdenic acid, ignited with charcoal powder. 2. A blue one may be obtained by the same process not carried so far; or by immersing a plate of tin in a solution of the acid. 3. The third oxide has a green colour; and, having acid properties, is termed molybdenous acid. The fourth is the yellow acid obtained by the process already described.

V. The nitric, nitro-muriatic, and oxy-muriatic acids, are the only ones that act on molybdena.

VI. The muriatic, and other acids, act on its oxides, and afford blue solutions.

VII. Molybdena unites readily with sulphur, and composes a substance, similar to the one from which the metal was originally obtained.

VIII. The molybdenic acid combines with alkalies, earths, and some of the imperfect metals. A small rod of zinc or tin is acted upon by a solution of the acid, which becomes blue, in consequence of the loss of a portion of its oxygen. The acid precipitates nitrates of silver, mercury, and lead; muriate of lead, and nitrate and muriate of barytes. Recent muriate of tin throws down, from the solution of molybdenate of potash, a beautiful blue precipitate.

SECT. XXII.

Uranium.

I. This metal was discovered by Klaproth, in a mineral which contains it combined with sulphur. The metal is separated from the sulphur, first by roasting; then dissolving the ore in nitro-muriatic acid, and precipitating by an alkali. An orange-coloured precipitate is obtained which is an oxide of uranium. This may be reduced to a metallic form, in the same manner as the molybdenic acid.

II. Uranium is of a dark grey colour; and internally of a reddish brown. It has only been obtained in small grains of considerable hardness. Its fusion is very difficultly effected.

III. The metal is soluble only in nitric acid.

IV. Its oxide is of a yellow colour, and dissolves in acids. It is precipitated by alkalies; and is thrown down, of a reddish brown colour, by prussiates. Sulphuret of ammonia gives a brownish yellow precipitate; and tincture of galls, a chocolate brown one.

V. The oxide of uranium is insoluble in alkalies, which distinguishes it from the oxide of tungsten. It is soluble however, by alkaline carbonates.

SECT. XXIII.

Tungsten.

I. Tungsten may be obtained from two different minerals. The one, consisting of the tungstic acid, united with lime, is called simply tungsten. In the other, termed Wolfram, it is united with iron and manganese. Its extraction from the former is the most simple process. One part of the tungstate of lime, and four of carbonate of potash, are fused together, and the mass is dissolved in 12 parts of boiling water. Nitric acid is then added,

which unites with the potash, and precipitates tungstic acid. This acid, when reduced in the usual manner, yields tungsten ; but the process of its reduction is a very difficult one, and frequently fails of success.

The tungstic acid may, also, be obtained from Wolfram, by fusion with three times its weight of nitrate of potash ; or with twice its weight of carbonate of potash. The fused mass, dissolved in boiling water, and filtered, gives, on the addition of nitric acid, a precipitate of tungstic acid ; or Wolfram, reduced to a fine powder, may be boiled with three times its weight of muriatic acid. As soon as the acid becomes hot, a yellow powder appears, and the liquid becomes brown. When cold, decant the clear liquid, and wash the sediment repeatedly with water ; then digest it, for some hours, with liquid ammonia, which will take up a part. Repeat these operations, till they cease to act on the substance. Evaporate the ammoniacal solution to dryness, and calcine the salt. The acid of tungsten remains, in the proportion of more than half the weight of Wolfram which has been employed.

II. Tungsten has the following characters.

1. It has a greyish white colour, like that of iron, and a good deal of brilliancy. It is not magnetic.

2. It is extremely hard and brittle. It requires, for fusion, a temperature of at least 170° Wedgwood.

3. It is oxydized by the action of heat and air. Its first oxide is black. The second is yellow, and is commonly termed tungstic acid.

4. The tungstic acid has no taste ; is insoluble in water ; but remains suspended in it, and in this state has no action on vegetable colours. Exposed to heat in a platina spoon, it assumes a deep green colour. Calcined with the contact of air, its yellow colour becomes deeper, and passes to a green, and after some hours, grey. The deficiency of several acid properties has induced Vauquelin to withdraw it from the class of acids, and to arrange it among the oxides. It combines with alkalies ; but so do the oxides of tin, zinc, antimony, and arsenic.

FOURTH CLASS.

REFRACTORY METALS.

SECT. XXIV.

Titanium.

I. Titanium is obtained from a mineral found in Hungary, &c. called red schorl, or titanite; and, also, in a substance from Cornwall, termed menachanite. It was in the latter substance that it was originally discovered by Mr. Gregor of Cornwall; and its characters have since been more fully investigated by Klaproth, Vauquelin and Hecht, Lovitz, and Lampadius. To separate it from the first compound, the mineral is to be reduced to powder, and fused with twice its weight of potash. When the fused mass, after cooling, is dissolved in water, a white oxide of titanium remains.

Menachanite is to be first fused with potash in a similar manner; and to the alkaline solution, muriatic acid is to be added. This dissolves the oxide of iron, and precipitates the white oxide of titanium, still, however, contaminated by some iron.

II. The oxide of titanium is reduced, by exposure to an intense heat, moistened with oil, and surrounded by powdered charcoal. A blackish blistered substance is obtained, some points of which have a reddish colour. Lampadius states its colour to be that of copper, but deeper; and its lustre to be considerable. It is brittle, but when in thin plates, has considerable elasticity. When this is boiled with nitric acid, no remarkable effect ensues, but the bright spots disappear, and are succeeded by a white compound. Nitro-muriatic acid forms, also, a white powder, which remains suspended in it. Sulphuric acid exhibits a similar appearance; sulphurous acid is disengaged; and the titanium is partly changed to a white oxide, and partly dissolved. Muriatic acid dissolves titanium, but not its oxide.

III. The solution of titanium gives a white precipitate

with carbonates of alkali; a grass green, mixed with brown, with prussiate of potash; and a dirty dark green, with hydro-sulphurets. Infusion of galls precipitates a reddish brown substance, which, if the solution be concentrated, has the appearance of coagulated blood. A rod of tin, immersed in the solution, imparts to the liquid around it a fine red colour; and a rod of zinc a deep blue one.

IV. Titanium tarnishes by exposure to the atmosphere, and is oxydized when heated with access of air. It is susceptible of three stages of oxydizement. The first oxide is blue or purple, the second red, and the third white.

SECT. XXV.

Columbium.

This metal was discovered by Mr. Hatchett, in a mineral belonging to the cabinet of the British Museum, supposed to be brought from Massachusetts, in North America. By alternate fusion with potash, and digestion with muriatic acid, the mineral was decomposed; the acid combining with oxide of iron, and the alkali with a peculiar metallic acid, separable by the addition of diluted nitric acid, which threw down a copious white sediment.

This acid has not yet been reduced; but from its properties, there can be little doubt that it has a metallic base. It is insoluble in nitric acid; but when fresh precipitated, it combines both with the sulphuric and muriatic. It unites also with alkalies; and both solutions are colourless. Prussiate of potash gives an olive coloured precipitate; tincture of galls, a deep orange; and hydro-sulphuret of ammonia, one of a chocolate colour.

SECT. XXVI.

Tantalum.

This metal was discovered by Mr. Ekeberg, an eminent Swedish chemist, in two different fossils, both of which are found in Finland. In the one it occurs combined with iron and manganese; in the other with the earth

called yttria. The precise process for its extraction is not detailed, in the short notice of the discovery, which appeared in the *Annales de Chimie* (XLIII. 281.) The following are the characteristic properties of tantalum, as enumerated by Mr. Ekeberg.

1. It is not soluble in any acid, in whatsoever state the mineral is taken, and whatever means are employed.

2. Fixed alkalies attack it, and dissolve a considerable quantity, which may afterwards be precipitated by acids.

3. The oxide of this metal is white, and does not acquire any colour, by exposure to a high temperature with access of air. Its specific gravity, after being made red-hot, is 6.500.

4. It melts with phosphate of soda, and with borax, but does not impart to them any colour.

5. The oxide of tantalum, ignited with charcoal, melts and agglutinates. It then presents a metallic lustre, and a shining fracture of a greyish black colour. Acids change it again into a white oxide.

Though the oxides of tin and of tungsten are equally soluble with that of tantalum in fixed alkalies, yet the former is easily reduced, furnishing a ductile metal; and the oxide of tungsten dissolves in ammonia, is changed to a yellow colour by acids, and communicates colour to phosphate of soda and borax. The oxide of titanium differs from this, in being soluble by acids, and in tinging borax and phosphoric salts, when fused with them.

SECT. XXVII.

Cerium.

I. Cerium has been lately discovered, by Messrs. Berzelius and Hisenger of Stockholm, in a mineral from Bastnas, in Sweden, which had been supposed to be an ore of tungsten. This discovery has been since confirmed by the unquestionable testimony of Vauquelin; who, after a careful examination of the mineral, concurs in opinion, that it contains the oxide of an unknown metal. From the planet Ceres, discovered about the same period, it has

been called Cerium; and the mineral that contains it is termed Cerite. (See Nich. Journ. XII.)

II. To obtain the oxide of this new metal, the cerite is dissolved in nitro-muriatic acid, after being calcined and pulverized. The solution is filtered, neutralized with pure potash, and then precipitated by tartrate of potash. This precipitate, well washed, and afterwards calcined, is the oxide of cerium.

III. Cerium appears to be susceptible of two stages of oxydizement; the first oxide being white, and the second of a fallow red. The white oxide, by calcination, becomes red.

IV. Sulphuric acid, diluted with four times its weight of water, dissolves the red oxide. The solution, on being evaporated, yields crystals, some of which are orange, and others have a lemon yellow colour. The sulphate is soluble only by an excess of acid. Its taste is saccharine mixed with acid.

V. Sulphuric acid readily unites with the white oxide; the solution is nearly colourless, but has a slight rosy tinge. It has a saccharine taste, unmixed with acidity, and yields white crystals.

VI. Nitric acid unites most easily with the white oxide. The solution is very sweet, and is not crystallizable. When decomposed by heat, it leaves a brick-coloured oxide.

VII. Muriatic acid dissolves the red oxide; and the solution crystallizes confusedly. The salt is deliquescent; soluble in an equal weight of water; and in three or four parts of alcohol. When this solution is concentrated, it burns with a yellow sparkling flame.

An infusion of galls produces, in muriate of cerium, a yellowish precipitate not very abundant. A few drops of ammonia throw down a very voluminous one of a brown colour, which becomes black and brilliant, by desiccation. By the action of heat, it assumes a brick red colour.

VIII. Oxide of cerium unites readily with carbonic acid. This union is best effected, by precipitating a solution of the oxide with carbonate of potash. An effervescence ensues; and a white and light precipitate is formed, which assumes, on drying, a silvery appearance.

IX. Sulphuretted hydrogen does not unite with cerium.

X. The attempts of Vauquelin to reduce the oxide of cerium produced only a small metallic globule, not larger than a pin's head. This globule was not acted upon by any of the simple acids; but it was dissolved, though slowly, by nitro-muriatic acid. The solution was reddish, and gave traces of iron; but it also gave evident marks of cerium, by the white precipitate which tartrate of potash and oxalate of ammonia threw down. The metallic globule, also, was harder, whiter, much more brittle, and more scaly in its fracture, than pure cast iron.

XI. Hence cerium appears to be a volatile metal, unless it is volatilized in the state of an oxide, which remains to be ascertained by future experiments.

CHAP. XIX.

VEGETABLE SUBSTANCES.

SECT. I.

Vegetable Extract.

For the purpose of exhibiting its properties, extract may be obtained by evaporating, in a temperature below 212° , an infusion of saffron, prepared with boiling distilled water. It has the following properties:

1. It is cohesive, of a brownish colour, and generally of a bitterish taste.
2. It is soluble in cold water, but more copiously in hot. Hence the decoctions of certain substances (Peruvian bark for example) become turbid on cooling. The

solution, exposed for a long time to the air, acquires a mouldy pellicle, and undergoes a sort of putrefaction.

3. When a solution of extract is slowly evaporated, it affords a semi-transparent mass; but rapid evaporation renders it perfectly opaque. By repeated solutions in water, and evaporations, it acquires a deeper colour, and loses its property of being soluble in water, apparently in consequence of absorbing oxygen from the air.

4. Extract, exposed to the atmosphere, slowly imbibes moisture; or is imperfectly deliquescent.

5. It is soluble in alcohol and in liquid alkalies, but not in acids, which last even precipitate it from its solution in water. It is insoluble, also, in ether.

6. Oxygenized muriatic acid, poured into a solution of extract, precipitates a dark yellow powder, which is no longer soluble in water, but dissolves in hot alcohol.

7. Extract has an affinity for alumine. When the sulphate or muriate of this earth is poured into one of extract, a precipitate appears, especially if the mixture be boiled. When linen or woollen thread, previously impregnated with a solution of alum, is boiled with a solution of extract, the thread is dyed a fawn colour, and the extract disappears in great part from the liquor.

8. Muriate of tin, and several other metallic salts, also precipitate extract, their oxides forming with it insoluble compounds.

9. Extract is not precipitated by a solution of tan.

SECT. II.

Mucilage, or Gum.

This substance, in a solid state, is generally known by the name of gum. Gum arabic may be taken as an example.

1. It is dry, brittle, and insipid, and undergoes no change by exposure to the atmosphere, except that the action of light destroys the yellow colour, which it frequently exhibits.

2. It is readily soluble in water, and forms a viscid so-

lution, which may be kept a long time without undergoing any change; but finally becomes sour.

3. It is insoluble in alcohol and in ether, the former of which separates it from water.

4. It is precipitated from water, in a thick curdy form, by Goulard's extract of lead; and is thrown down by the red sulphate of iron, in the state of a brown semi-transparent jelly. Several other salts, also, have a similar effect, as may be seen in a table, in the 4th vol. of Thomson's Chemistry, p. 224.

5. It is soluble in pure alkalies, and is precipitated by acids. Of the earths, *silex* seems to have the strongest affinity for it; a solution of silicated alkali precipitating a very dilute solution of gum. (Thomson.) Dr. Duncan jun. however, informs me, that this precipitate is produced only by solutions of the lighter coloured specimens of gum, which have different properties from those of darker colour.

6. Diluted acids dissolve gum unchanged, and the concentrated ones decompose it. Strong sulphuric acid converts it into water, acetic acid, and charcoal; nitric acid changes gum into oxalic acid; and oxygenized muriatic acid into citric acid.

7. Gum and sugar readily combine; and by gentle evaporation of their mixed solutions, a transparent substance is obtained. From this, alcohol separates a part of the sugar, but the remainder continues in combination, and forms a substance, resembling that of which the nests of wasps are composed.

8. Gum, when submitted to destructive distillation in a retort, yields an acid, formerly called the pyro-mucous, but now ascertained to be merely the acetic, holding in solution a portion of essential oil. Carburetted hydrogen and carbonic acid gases are also disengaged; and in the retort there remains charcoal, mixed with lime and phosphate of lime.

SECT. III.

Vegetable Jelly.

Vegetable jelly may be obtained from the recently expressed juices of certain fruits, such as the currant and gooseberry. When the expressed juice of these fruits is allowed to remain, for some time, in a state of rest, it partly coagulates into a tremulous soft substance, well known by the name of jelly. The coagulum, washed with a very small quantity of water, is jelly nearly in a state of purity.

Vegetable jelly, unless when tinged by the colour of the fruit, is nearly colourless; has a pleasant taste, and a tremulous consistency. It is scarcely soluble in cold water; but very readily in hot, and the solution again gelatinates on cooling. By long boiling it loses this last property, and is changed into a substance analagous to mucilage. When dried it is transparent. It combines readily with alkalies. Nitric acid converts it into oxalic acid, without disengaging any azotic gas.

SECT. IV.

*Sugar and Oxalic Acid.*ART. I.—*Sugar.*

1. Sugar is soluble in an equal weight of cold water, and almost to an unlimited amount in hot water. The latter solution affords a liquid called syrup; from which, by long repose, crystals of sugar separate.

2. Alcohol dissolves, when heated, about one-fourth its weight of sugar.

3. Lime-water renders sugar more soluble. Alkalies unite with it, and destroy its taste. It may be recovered,

however, unchanged, by adding sulphuric acid, and precipitating the sulphate by alcohol, which retains the sugar in solution.

4. Sugar has the property of rendering oils miscible with water.

5. The sulphurets, hydro-sulphurets, and phosphurets, appear to have the property of converting sugar into a substance not unlike gum. (Thomson's Chemistry, iv. 214.)

6. It is converted, by destructive distillation, into acetic acid, carburetted hydrogen, and carbonic acid gas, and charcoal. According to Lavoisier, it is composed of 64 oxygen, 28 carbon, and 8 hydrogen.

ART. II.—*Oxalic Acid.*

Sugar is acidified by distillation with nitric acid. To six ounces of nitric acid, in a stoppered retort, to which a large receiver is luted, add, by degrees, one ounce of lump-sugar, coarsely powdered. A gentle heat may be applied during the solution. Nitrous gas will be disengaged in great abundance. When the whole of the sugar is dissolved, distil off a part of the acid. The remaining liquor will form regular crystals, (amounting to 58 parts from 100 of sugar,) which must be again dissolved in water and crystallized. Lay this second crop of crystals on blotting paper to dry.

The crystals of oxalic acid have the following characters:

1. They have a strong acid taste, and act powerfully on vegetable blue colours.

2. They dissolve in twice their weight of cold, and in an equal weight of hot water.

3. They effloresce in the air, and become covered with a white powder.

4. A red heat entirely decomposes them, and leaves only charcoal.

5. Oxalic acid combines with alkalies and earths, forming with the first soluble, and with the latter generally insoluble, compounds. The oxalate of potash may exist in two states, either exactly saturated, or with an excess of acid. The alkaline oxalates, as well as the uncombin-

ed acid, have the property of decomposing salts with base of lime ; and hence are excellent tests of that earth.—Oxalate of ammonia, added to a solution of pure lime or of any of its salts, immediately effects a precipitation of oxalate of lime.

SECT. V.

Native Vegetable Acids and Acidula.

Native vegetable acids are such as are found, ready formed in plants or their fruits, and require only pressure, and other simple processes, for their extraction.

ART. I.—*Citric Acid.*

Citric acid exists, nearly in an uncombined state, in the expressed juice of the lime and lemon, which contain also extractive matter and mucilage. The process, for obtaining it in a separate state, we owe to the ingenuity of Scheele. To the juice of the lime or lemon, contained in a vessel of earthen ware, or white wood, add, very gradually, finely powdered carbonate of lime (chalk or whiting,) and stir the mixture well after each addition. An effervescence will ensue ; and, as long as this arises, on adding fresh portions of chalk, more will be required. The exact proportion it is impossible to assign, on account of the variable strength of the acid juice. In general, from six to eight ounces of chalk are sufficient to saturate a wine gallon of lime-juice. When it ceases to excite effervescence, and the liquor has lost its sour taste, leave the mixture to settle ; decant the liquid, and add a quantity of water. Let the powder subside ; the liquor be again decanted, and thrown away ; and these operations repeated, till the water comes off nearly colourless. The insoluble precipitate consists of citric acid united with lime ; add to it a quantity of sulphuric acid, of the density 1.8, equal to about 3-4ths the weight of the chalk which has been employed, and previously diluted with 20 parts of water ; or the sulphuric acid

may be poured, undiluted, upon the precipitate, suspended by stirring it in a considerable quantity of water.— Let the acid and precipitate remain together 24 hours ; during which time they must be frequently stirred. Then let the white sediment, which consists of sulphate of lime, subside ; decant the clear liquor ; add more water till it comes off tasteless ; and mix all the liquors together. The solution, containing citric and sulphuric acids, and some mucilage, is to be evaporated in shallow earthen dishes, placed in a sand-heat. Reduce the liquid about 3-4ths its bulk by evaporation ; separate the sulphate of lime, which will be deposited, and again waste the liquor, by a heat not above 212° , to the consistence of syrup.— Dark-brown crystals will form on cooling, which must be set to drain ; and the remaining liquor, when again evaporated repeatedly, will continue to yield fresh crystals. To purify these, let them be dissolved in water ; and the solution again evaporated. After the second crystallization, their colour will be improved ; but it will require three or four crystallizations to obtain them perfectly white and well formed. In this state they are the pure citric acid.

The crystals of citric acid are readily soluble in water, one part of which at 60° takes up $1\frac{1}{4}$ its weight. They effervesce in the air ; and with the alkalies and earths this solution unites and forms citrates.

ART. II.—*Gallic Acid.*

This acid exists in the gall-nut, along with tan and other substances. In Mr. Davy's experiments, 400 grains of a saturated infusion of galls gave 53 of solid matter, composed of 9-10ths tan and 1-10th gallic acid. The acid may be obtained by exposing an infusion of galls in water to the air. A mouldy pellicle will form on the surface of the infusion ; and, after some months exposure, small yellow crystals will appear on the inside of the vessel. These crystals must be dissolved in alcohol, to separate them from other substances, and the solution evaporated to dryness.

It may also be procured by sublimation. (N. 35.) Pounded galls are to be put into a retort, and heat applied. The

gallic acid will rise, and be condensed in the neck of the retort in a solid form. This process is recommended by Deyeux as preferable to any other.

The gallic acid may be separated from the infusion of galls, by adding muriate of tin till the precipitate ceases to appear. This precipitate may be reserved for the experiments detailed under the article *Tan*. From the remaining solution the superabundant oxide of tin must be precipitated by sulphuretted hydrogen gas, and the clear liquor, on evaporation, yields crystals of gallic acid.

From one ounce of galls, according to Haussman, about three drachms of gallic acid may be obtained.

In Nicholson's 8vo. Journal, vol. i. p. 236, a very simple process for obtaining gallic acid is proposed by M. Fiedler. Boil an ounce of powdered galls, in 16 ounces of water down to 8, and strain the decoction. Precipitate also two ounces of alum, dissolved in water, with a sufficient quantity of carbonate of potash, and, after having washed the precipitate extremely well, add it to the decoction, and digest the mixture for 24 hours, shaking frequently. The alumine combines with, and carries down, both the *tan* and extract; and the filtered solution yields, by gentle evaporation, crystals of gallic acid.

By none of these processes, however, can gallic acid be obtained perfectly pure: for it still, according to Mr. Davy, is contaminated with a small portion of extract.—To purify it, Deyeux advises its sublimation. Over a glass capsule, containing the impure acid, and placed in a sand heat, another capsule is to be inverted, and kept cool.—On the impression of the heat, the acid rises into the upper one, in the form of white needle-shaped crystals.

The pure acid has the following characters:

1. Gallic acid burns with flame, when placed on a red-hot iron, and emits an aromatic smell.
2. It is soluble in 24 parts of cold, or 3 of boiling water. Alcohol, when cold, dissolves 1-4th, or an equal weight when heated.
3. The solution reddens blue vegetable colours.
4. Nitric acid converts the gallic into oxalic acid.
5. It precipitates most metals from their solutions; gold, silver, and copper, of a brown colour; lead, white; mercury, orange; bismuth, yellow; and iron, deep black. The precipitate from solutions of iron is soluble in an excess of acid. It forms the basis of ink, which, accord-

ing to Deyeux, consists of carburetted oxide of iron, and gallate of iron.

ART. III.—*Malic Acid.*

This acid exists in the juice of apples, gooseberries, and of some other fruits, and is found mixed with the citric, and occasionally with other acids. It may be obtained by evaporating the juice nearly to dryness, and then adding alcohol, which dissolves the acids, and leaves the mucilage. To this solution of citric and malic acids in alcohol, chalk is to be added to saturation, and the precipitate to be washed with boiling water, which takes up the malate of lime, and leaves the citrate. The solution of the malate of lime may then be decomposed by sulphuric acid. Or the juice of apples may be saturated with carbonate of potash, and mixed with a solution of acetate of lead, till the precipitate ceases. This precipitate is to be washed with water, and dilute sulphuric acid is to be added, till the liquor acquires an acid taste, unmixed with any sweetness. The liquor is to be filtered, to separate the sulphate of lead, and evaporated. It yields no crystals, but a thick liquor of a cherry-red colour.

The malic acid, in general, forms deliquescent salts.

ART. IV.—*Tartarous Acid, and its Combinations.*

This acid may be obtained from common cream of tartar, by dissolving it in boiling water, and adding chalk as long as any effervescence ensues. An insoluble tartrate of lime falls down, which may be decomposed, like the citrate of lime, by sulphuric acid. On evaporating the solution, regular crystals are obtained.

This acid is readily soluble in water. It combines with alkalies. When potash is exactly saturated with it, a neutral salt is obtained, which dissolves very readily in water; but, on a still farther addition of acid, we obtain a salt, which requires 20 parts of water for solution. This last is identical with common cream of tartar, which is a tartrate of potash, with a considerable excess of acid, and hence has been termed the acidulous, or super-tartrate of

potash. By adding to this as much alkali as will saturate the excess of acid, it becomes easily soluble; and, by again rendering the acid superabundant, it is again rendered insoluble.

ART. V.—*Benzoic Acid.*

This may be obtained from a substance termed gum-benjamin, by sublimation. It exists in a solid form, and may be procured at the druggists' shops under the name of flowers of benjamin. These flowers have manifestly acid properties.

ART. VI. The oxalic acid is also found native in the juice of sorrel, forming a salt with excess of acid, or an acidulum.

ART. VII. Mr. Klaproth has lately discovered a new acid, combined with lime and extract, in a saline mass, which exudes from the trunk of the white mulberry, *morus alba*, L. It was collected, by Dr. Thompson, from trees in the botanic garden at Palermo; and seems peculiar to those individuals that grow in hot climates. Its characters have not been fully ascertained. From its origin, it has been called, by Klaproth, moroxylic acid, and its compounds moroxylates. (See Nich. Journ. 8vo. vii. 129.)

ART. VIII. The laccic acid (which, in strictness, should be classed among animal acids) is obtained from the white lac of Madras, from which, when liquefied, it oozes out in drops. It is in the form of a reddish liquor, having a slightly bitter saltish taste; but, on evaporation, it shoots into acicular crystals. It may be raised in distillation. It combines with carbonate of lime and soda, and excites effervescence. It precipitates barytic salts; assumes a green colour with lime-water; and a purplish one with sulphate of iron. A full account of its properties, and of those of the substance that affords it, may be found in Dr. Pearson's paper in the Phil. Trans. 1794.

SECT. VI.

Fixed Oils.

1. These oils are obtained, by pressure, from certain vegetables; as the olive, the almond, linseed, &c.

2. As thus obtained, they are generally found combined with mucilage.

3. They are usually coloured, but may be deprived of colour by digestion with charcoal.

4. They do not combine with water or with alcohol.

5. They unite with alkalies and form soap.

Soap is readily soluble in water. The solution is decomposed by acids, and by neutral salts with earthy bases. Hence hard waters, which contain earthy salts, curdle soap; their acid uniting with the alkali of the soap, and setting the oil at liberty. When a strong solution of soap is mixed with one of a metallic salt, a substance is formed, termed a metallic soap. The alkali unites with the acid of the salt, and the oil with the metallic oxide.

6. Fixed oils dissolve sulphur, and form a kind of balsam. They act also on phosphorus.

7. Their properties are changed by boiling with metallic oxides, those of lead for example. The mucilage unites with the oxide, which probably gives up a portion of its oxygen to the oil, and the oil is rendered drying, and fit for the use of the painter. If the oxide be added in larger proportion, the mass, when cold, is a plaster.

8. Fixed oils are highly combustible. When distilled with a gentle heat, they yield olefiant and carburetted hydrogen gases.

SECT. VII.

Volatile, or Essential Oils.

1. These oils have a penetrating smell, and an acrid taste.

2. They are volatilized by a gentle heat. Hence the spot which they leave on paper may be removed by the application of heat, while the stains from expressed oils are permanent.

3. They can, with difficulty, be brought to unite with alkalies.

4. They are soluble in alcohol.

5. They do not unite with water. With the intervention of a little sugar, however, they are combinable, in small proportion, with water.

6. When nitric acid is poured upon these oils, especially if it has been previously mixed with one-fifth or one-sixth of sulphuric acid, the mixture bursts out into a violent flame. This experiment requires caution, as the inflamed oil is apt to be scattered about.

7. Several of them detonate, when rubbed with hyperoxygenized muriate of potash, and take fire when poured into oxygenized muriatic acid gas.

8. Essential oils are thickened by long exposure to air.

Camphor resembles the essential oils in many properties, but is not inflamed by nitric acid, which converts it into an acid, distinguished by peculiar properties, and termed the camphoric acid.

For this purpose, camphor is repeatedly distilled with four times its weight of nitric acid, till about 20 parts of acid have been employed. At each operation, the portion of camphor, which sublimes and escapes decomposition, is to be returned into the retort. The acid is susceptible of crystallization; the crystals effloresce in the air, and are sparingly soluble in water; they are combustible, and burn with a dense, aromatic smoke; they melt and sublime with a gentle heat, and dissolve in the mineral acids. They dissolve also in alcohol, and are not precipitated by water. With alkalies and earths they compose a class of salts called Camphorates.

SECT. VIII.

Resins.

Resins are inspissated juices of certain plants, and are generally obtained by wounding their bark. Copal, or lac, may be taken as an example. Dragon's blood, guaiacum, sandarach, labdanum, common resin, and turpentine, are also varieties of this substance.

1. They have generally a yellow colour, and are imperfectly transparent.

2. They are dry, brittle, and extremely inflammable.

3. They dissolve in alcohol, ether, and essential oils; but not at all in water, which even precipitates them from the foregoing solvents.

4. Both acids and alkalies act on them; the pure alkalies most remarkably.

5. They are the basis of varnishes, and are much used in medicine.

Gum-Resins, along with resin, have an admixture of extractive matter. They dissolve partly in water, and partly in alcohol. They are almost solely used in medicine. Asafoetida, gum-ammoniac, aloes, gamboge, myrrh, opium, &c. are varieties of gum-resin.

Amber is a resin possessed of peculiar properties. By distillation it yields a distinct acid, called the *succinic*.—To prepare this acid, let a glass retort be half filled with powdered amber, and the remainder with fine dry sand. Lute a receiver, and apply a gentle heat. A portion of water first comes over, which is succeeded by a weak acetic acid. The succinic acid then sublimes; but is contaminated by a mixture of oil. It may be purified by solution and crystallization; and it then forms transparent white shining crystals, having the form of triangular prisms. They are soluble in 24 times their weight of water, and in boiling alcohol. The solution reddens the blue colour of turnsole, but not that of violets, and has an acid taste. It combines with alkalies, &c. and forms succinates.

SECT. IX.

Farina, or Fecula.

Common starch may be taken as an example of farina. It will be found to have the following qualities:

1. It is not soluble in water, unless when heated to 160°; and if the temperature be raised to 180°, the solution coagulates.
2. Farina is insoluble in alcohol.
3. Pure liquid alkalies act on starch; and convert it into a transparent jelly. The compound is soluble in alcohol.
4. Sulphuric acid dissolves it slowly; sulphurous acid is evolved; and so much charcoal is disengaged, that the vessel may be inverted, without spilling its contents.
5. Nitric acid, at the temperature of the atmosphere, acts on starch, and dissolves it; but no oxalic acid appears subsequently, unless heat be applied. Hot nitric acid is decomposed by starch, and oxalic acid is generated.
6. Starch, as it exists in grain, is convertible into sugar. On this property is founded the process of mashing.
7. Starch is capable of entering into chemical union with tan. (Thomson, in Nicholson, ix. 74.)
8. When distilled alone, it yields an acid, termed the pyromucous. This has been lately shown to be identical with vinegar.
9. Farina forms a considerable part of wheat and other flour, and of the potatoe. It may be obtained separate by washing with water.
10. It becomes sour when exposed in a moist state to the air.

SECT. X.

Gluten.

Gluten may be obtained from wheat-flour, by kneading it into dough, with water, and washing off from this all the farina, by repeated affusions of water, working it at the same time with the fingers.

The following are the properties of gluten :

1. It is of a grey colour, and has so much elasticity that, when drawn out, it recovers itself like elastic gum. It has scarcely any taste, and does not lose its tenacity in the mouth.

2. When exposed to a gentle heat, it dries very slowly, and becomes hard, brittle, semi-transparent, of a dark-brown colour, and somewhat like glue. When broken it has the fracture of glass. In this state it is insoluble in water.

3. When kept moist, it ferments and undergoes a sort of putrefaction, emitting a very offensive odour.

4. When suddenly heated, it swells prodigiously ; then melts, blackens, and yields a smell like that of burning horn.

5. It is insoluble in water, in alcohol, and in ether ; but, after fermentation, it is partially soluble in alcohol, and the solution may be applied to the purposes of varnish.

6. All acids dissolve it, and alkalies precipitate it, but considerably changed, and deprived of its elasticity. It undergoes a similar change when dissolved in pure alkalies, and precipitated by acids.

7. It exists most abundantly in wheat-flour ; and is essential to its soundness ; but it is found, also, in various vegetable juices : (See Proust on the Green Fecula of Vegetables, Nich. Journ. 8vo, iv. 273.)

SECT. XI.

Caoutchouc, or Elastic Gum.

1. Caoutchouc is inflammable, burning with a bright flame in atmospherical air, and with still greater brilliancy in oxygen gas, or in oxygenized muriatic gas.

2. It is insoluble in water and in alcohol. If long slips of caoutchouc, however, are tied spirally round a glass or metal rod, and boiled for an hour or two, the edges cohere, and a hollow tube is formed.

3. Caoutchouc is soluble in ether; not, however, in the ordinary state of this fluid as it is found in the shops. To render ether a fit solvent of this substance, it should be purified by washing it with water, in the manner to be hereafter described. The solution may be applied to the purpose of forming tubes or vessels of any shape.

4. Caoutchouc is soluble in volatile oils; but when they have evaporated, they leave it in a glutinous state, and deprived of much of its elasticity. Petroleum dissolves it, and, when evaporated, leaves it unchanged.

5. It is acted on by alkalies; and when steeped in them for some time, loses its elasticity.

6. The sulphuric acid is decomposed by it; sulphurous acid is disengaged; and charcoal remains. Nitric acid acts on it with the assistance of heat; nitrous gas is formed; and oxalic acid crystallizes from the residuum.

7. When distilled it gives ammonia, and hence may be inferred to contain azote.

SECT. XII.

The Woody Fibre.

1. This forms the basis of all wood, and is more abundant in proportion as the wood is harder.

2. It is insoluble in water.

3. The pure fixed alkalies act on the woody fibre, and render it soft, and of a brown colour.

4. Nitric acid decomposes it with the assistance of heat; and oxalic, citric, malic, and acetic acids, are formed.

5. When exposed to heat, it affords an acid called the *pyroligneous*, which has been lately proved identical with the acetous. In the retort a black substance remains, which is charcoal.

SECT. XIII.

Colouring Matter.

I. The colouring matter of vegetables presents a considerable variety in its relation to chemical agents, depending on the diversity of the basis, or sub-stratum, in which it resides. Chaptal has arranged the varieties of the colouring principle under four heads. 1st, As it is attached to extractive matter: 2d, As it resides in gum; in both which cases it is soluble in water: 3d, As it exists in farina, or fecula; and in this instance it dissolves most readily in sulphuric acid: 4th, The colouring principle is occasionally inherent in resin, and then it requires alcohol, an oil, or an alkali, for solution.

II. The extraction of colouring matter from the various substances that afford it, and its fixation on wool, silk, or cotton, constitutes the art of dyeing; the details of which would be foreign to the purpose of this work. In this place I shall state only a few general principles; and refer for more minute information to the works of Berthollet and Bancroft.

III. Of the various colouring substances, used in the art of dyeing, some may be permanently attached to the dyed fabric, and fully communicate their colour to it, without the intervention of any other substance; while others leave a mere stain, removeable by washing with water. The latter class, however, may be durably attached by the mediation of a proper *basis*. The colours, which are of themselves permanent, have been termed,

by Dr. Bancroft, *substantive* colours, while those that require a basis, have been denominated *adjective* colours.

IV. The most important bases, by the mediation of which colouring matter is united with wool or cotton, are alumine, the oxide of iron, and the oxide of tin.—Alumine and oxide of iron are applied in combination with sulphuric, or acetic acids; and the oxide of tin, united with nitro-muriatic, muriatic, acetic, or tartarous acids. In dyeing, the most common method is to pass the substance to be dyed through a decoction of the colouring matter, and afterwards through a solution of the basis.—The colouring principle thus becomes permanently fixed on the cloth, sometimes considerably changed by its union with the basis. In calico-printing, the basis, thickened with gum or flour paste, is applied to the cloth by wooden blocks, or copper cylinders. The cloth is then dried, and passed through a decoction of the colouring ingredient, which adheres only to that part of the cloth where the basis has been applied. From the rest of the cloth it is removed by simple washing with water.

V. The variety of colours, observed in dyed substances, are reducible to four simple ones, viz. blue, red, yellow, and black.

1. Indigo is the only substance used in dyeing blue, which it does without the intervention of a basis. In its ordinary state, it is insoluble in water, and in any other solvent except sulphuric acid. When thus dissolved, it is sometimes applied directly, in a diluted state, to the fabric, and dyes what is termed a Saxon blue. But, by the abstraction of part of its oxygen, indigo becomes soluble; and its colour changes from blue to green. It recovers the former colour, however, on exposure to the air, by again absorbing oxygen. Its de-oxydizement is effected by allowing it to ferment, along with bran, or other vegetable matter; or by decomposing, in contact with it, the green sulphate of iron. Substances dyed by indigo, thus deprived of oxygen, are green, and acquire a blue colour by exposure to the atmosphere. By this revival, the indigo again becomes insoluble, and fitted, therefore, for affording a permanent dye.

2. The substances, chiefly employed for affording red colours, are cochineal (an insect which has been supposed to derive colour from its food, the leaves of the

cactus opuntia, L.), archil, madder, brazil-wood, and safflower. The four first are soluble in water ; the last not without the intervention of an alkali. They are all adjective colours. Cochineal, though its colour is naturally crimson, is used for dyeing scarlet ; and to evolve the scarlet hue, it is necessary to employ the supertartrite of potash. The basis, by which it is attached to cloth, is the oxide of tin. This may be exhibited experimentally. A decoction of cochineal will leave only a fugitive stain on a piece of cloth ; but if, in the decoction, some supertartrite of potash has been dissolved, and a portion of nitro-muriate of tin afterwards been added, it will impart a permanent scarlet colour.

8. The yellow dyes are wild American hiccory, sumach, turmeric, fustic, and quercitron bark ; which afford various colours, accordingly as they are combined with the cloth, by the intervention of alumine, or of oxide of iron or tin. Thus, with the aluminous base, the quercitron bark yields a bright yellow ; with oxide of tin, all the shades, from pale-lemon colour to a deep orange ; and with oxide of iron, a drab colour. With the addition of indigo, it gives a green.

4. A combination of red oxide of iron, with the gallic acid and tan, is the principal black colour, which has therefore the same basis as common writing ink. In calico printing, white spots, or figures, on a black ground, are produced, by previously printing on the cloth a protecting paste of citric acid, thickened with gum or flour. The parts to which this paste is applied, do not receive the black dye, but remain perfectly white.

VI. The colouring matter of vegetables, besides being capable of fixation on cloth, may be obtained combined with a base. Thus if to a decoction, or infusion, of madder in water, a solution of sulphate of alumine be added, the colouring matter is precipitated in combination with the alumine, forming what is termed a *lake*. For obtaining this, the following process is given by Sir H. Englefield. Put two ounces of Dutch crop madder into a calico bag, capable of holding three or four times that quantity. Pour on it a pint of distilled water, and triturate, in a mortar, as much as can be done without destroying the bag. The water becomes loaded with colouring matter, and is opaque and muddy. Pour off this portion, and re-

peat the operation till no more colour is obtained, which will generally happen after the fifth or sixth affusion.— Pour these several washings into an earthen or well tinned copper pan ; and apply heat till the liquor boils.— Let it then be poured into a basin ; and one ounce of alum, dissolved in a pint of water, be added, and mixed by stirring. Add an ounce and a half of saturated solution of sub-carbonate of potash ; a violent effervescence will ensue, and the colouring matter will be precipitated. Stir the mixture till cold, and wash repeatedly with boiling water. About half an ounce of lake will be obtained, containing 2-5ths its weight of alumine.

Other lakes may be obtained, of different colours, by the substitution of different dyeing woods ; and from the infusion of cochineal, the beautiful pigment called Carmine is precipitated by means of a solution of tin.

SECT. XIV.

Tan, Tannin, or the Tanning Principle.

Tan exists abundantly in the bark of the oak, the willow, &c. and in the gall-nut. The interior bark, next to the wood, contains the largest proportion ; the middle and coloured part, the next ; and in this it is accompanied with more extract. The epidermis affords very little.

1. Tan may be obtained by any of the following processes ; but, according to Mr. Davy, it is difficult to procure it in a state of perfect purity.

1. Into a strong infusion of nut-galls, pour the muriate of tin, till the yellowish precipitate, which falls down abundantly, ceases to appear. Wash the precipitate with a small quantity of distilled water, and afterwards add a sufficient quantity of warm water for its solution. From this solution, the oxide of tin is precipitated by a stream of sulphuretted hydrogen gas ; and the tannin, which remains dissolved, may be procured by evaporation.

2. Into a saturated infusion of galls, pour a saturated solution of carbonate of potash. The yellowish-white

precipitate, after being washed with a small quantity of water, affords the tan. When thus prepared, Mr. Davy observes that tan is not perfectly pure, but contains a minute proportion of gallic acid and alkali.

3. Into a similar infusion, pour sulphuric or muriatic acid. A precipitate will form, which must be re-dissolved in water, and the excess of sulphuric acid saturated by carbonate of potash. When a farther addition is made of the alkali, the tan falls down, and must be purified by washing with a small quantity of water.

It has been discovered by Mr. Davy, that the terra japonica, or catechu (which is to be met with under this name in the druggists' shops,) is composed of about one half tan, the remainder being a mixture of extract, mucilage, and earthy impurities.

II. Tan has the following properties :

1. When evaporated to dryness, it forms a brown friable mass, which has much resemblance in its fracture to aloes, a sharp bitter taste, and is soluble in water, but still more readily in alcohol.

2. From this watery solution all acids precipitate tan.

3. The alkaline carbonates have a similar effect.

4. The watery solution, poured into one of glue (inspissated animal jelly,) converts it immediately into a coagulum, insoluble by boiling water, which has the elastic properties of the gluten of wheat.

The solution of gelatine, or jelly, may be prepared, for the purpose of precipitating tan, by dissolving isinglass in water, in the proportion of ten grains to two ounces. The precipitate consists of 54 jelly and 46 tan.* An excess of the solution partly redissolves it. It is this property, of forming with gelatine an insoluble compound, that fits tan for the purpose of preserving leather.

5. Tan forms, with fecula, or starch, a precipitate, which is sparingly soluble in cold water, and very copiously in hot water.

6. With gluten it gives an insoluble precipitate.

* From conversation with Dr. Duncan, jun. who has made numerous experiments on tan, I learn, that the proportion of ingredients in this precipitate varies very considerably, according to the mode in which it is effected; and that insolubility in water is by no means one of its constant characters. In ammonia it dissolves readily.

7. It is precipitated by salts with earthy bases, such as the nitrates of barytes, lime, &c.

8. It is separated also by salts with metallic bases, such as acetate of lead, muriate of tin, muriate of gold, and sulphate of iron.

Green sulphate of iron effects no change in the solution of tan, but the red sulphate occasions a dark-blueish precipitate. This precipitate differs from gallate of iron, in being decomposed by acids, the tan being thus separated. An excess of the red sulphate re-dissolves the precipitate, and affords a black or dark-blue liquor. By union with tan, the red sulphate is de-oxydized, the salt becoming the green sulphate, and the oxygen passing to the tan. Tan may also be oxygenized by passing streams of oxygenized muriatic acid through its solution in water.

Until very lately, tan had been known only as a production of nature; and the processes of chemistry had effected nothing more, than its separation from the various substances, with which it occurs combined. An important discovery, however, has been very recently made by Mr. Hatchett, of the artificial formation of tan, from substances which unquestionably do not contain it, but only furnish its elements. The processes for its factitious production are very numerous; but they are arranged, by their author, under three heads. 1st, The synthesis of tan may be effected by the action of nitric acid on animal or vegetable charcoal; 2dly, By distilling nitric acid from common resin, indigo, dragon's blood, and various other resinous substances; 3dly, By the action of sulphuric acid on common resin, elemi, asaletida, camphor, &c. Of these various processes, I shall select the most simple, referring to Mr. Hatchett's very interesting paper for a fuller detail of the experiments. (See Phil. Trans. for 1805.)

To 100 grains of powdered charcoal, contained in a matras, add an ounce of nitric acid (specific gr. 1.4) diluted with two ounces of water; place the vessel in a sand heat, and continue the digestion till the charcoal appears to be dissolved. A copious discharge of nitrous gas will take place. At the end of the second day, it may be necessary to add another ounce, and sometimes even

a third, of nitric acid ; and to continue the digestion during five or six days. A reddish-brown solution will be obtained, which must be evaporated to dryness in a glass vessel ; taking care, in the latter part of the process, so to regulate the temperature, that the acid may be expelled, without decomposing the residuum. A brown glossy substance will be obtained, having a resinous fracture, and amounting, in weight, to 116 or 120 grains. This substance has the following properties :

1. It is speedily dissolved by cold water and by alcohol.
2. It has an astringent flavour.
3. Exposed to heat, it smokes but little, swells much, and affords a bulky coal.
4. Its solution in water reddens litmus paper.
5. The solution copiously precipitates metallic salts, especially muriate of tin, acetate of lead, and red sulphate of iron. These precipitates, for the most part, are brown, inclining to chocolate, excepting that of tin, which is blackish grey.
6. Gold is precipitated from its solution in a metallic state.
7. The earthy salts are precipitated by it.
8. Gelatine is instantly precipitated from water, in the state of a coagulum, insoluble both in cold and in boiling water.

The identity of this substance with tan can, therefore, be scarcely doubted, since the two bodies agree in having the same characteristic properties. The only essential circumstance of discrimination, is, that the natural tan is destroyed, while the artificial is produced, by the agency of nitric acid ; and that the artificial substance, even when formed, powerfully resists the decomposing action of this acid, which readily destroys natural tan. Even, however, among the different varieties of the natural substance, Mr. Hatchett found essential differences in the facility of destruction by nitric acid. Those of oak bark and catechu are least destructible ; and, in general, the varieties of tan seem to be least permanent, in proportion to the quantity of mucilage which they contain. Infusions of factitious tan differ, also, from those of the natural kind, in not becoming mouldy by keeping.

The artificial substance is a purer variety of tan than the natural one ; inasmuch as it is perfectly free from gallic acid, and from extract, both of which are always present in the latter. The properties of the factitious compound vary a little, according to the mode of its

preparation, principally in the colour of the precipitates, which they separate from metallic solutions. Those effected by tan, formed by processes of the first class, are always brown, and by the second, pale or deep yellow.

SECT. XV.

Wax.

Wax appears to be the product of vegetables, and not an animalized substance; for it exists in the secula of houseleek, in lac, and exudes from a tree called *Myrica Cerifera*.

1. Wax is readily fusible and inflammable; and may be volatilized in close vessels.

2. It is insoluble in water.

3. Boiling alcohol dissolves a considerable proportion, which separates, in a great measure, on cooling, and is immediately precipitated by the addition of water. Boiling ether dissolves about 1-20th its weight.

4. Caustic fixed alkalies convert it into a saponaceous compound, soluble in warm water. A heated solution of ammonia dissolves it, and forms a kind of emulsion. On cooling, the wax rises to the surface in flocculi.

5. When distilled alone with a gentle heat, olefiant and hydro-carburet gases are obtained.

SECT. XVI.

The Bitter Principle.

The bitter taste of certain vegetables appears to be owing to the presence of a peculiar substance, differing from every other in its chemical properties. It may be extracted from the wood of quassia, the root of gentian, the leaves of the hop, and several other plants, by infusing them for some time in cold water. The characters of this substance, originally described by Welther, have

been attentively examined by Dr. Thomson, who enumerates them as follows. (Chemistry, IV. 242.)

1. When water, thus impregnated, is evaporated to dryness by a very gentle heat, it leaves a brownish yellow substance, which retains a certain degree of transparency. For some time it continues ductile, but at last becomes brittle. Its taste is intensely bitter.

2. When heated, it softens, swells, and blackens; then burns away without flaming much; and leaves a small quantity of ashes.

3. It is very soluble in water, and in alcohol.

4. It does not affect blue vegetable colours.

5. It is not precipitated by the watery solution of lime, barytes, or strontites; nor is it changed by alkalies.

6. Tincture of galls, infusion of nut-galls, and gallic acid, produce no effect.

7. Of the metallic salts, nitrate of silver and acetate of lead are the only ones that throw it down. The precipitate by acetate of lead is very abundant; and that salt, therefore, affords the best test for discovering the bitter principle, when no other substances are present, by which, also, it is decomposed.

From recent experiments of Mr. Hatchett, it appears that the bitter principle is formed, along with tan, by the action of nitric acid on indigo.

SECT. XVII.

*Narcotic Principle.**

Opium, and other vegetable products possessed of a narcotic power, are composed of several of the vegetable principles, that have already been enumerated. Besides these, however, they contain a peculiar one, in which the narcotic virtue resides.

I. To obtain the narcotic principle from opium, let water be digested upon it, and the strained solution be evaporated to the consistence of syrup. A gritty preci-

* I cannot find, from conversation with various chemical friends, that the narcotic principle has been obtained separate in this country.

pitae will begin to appear, which is considerably increased by diluting the liquid with water. This consists of three distinct substances, resin, oxygenized extract, and the narcotic principle. Boiling alcohol dissolves the resin and narcotic principle only; and the latter falls down in crystals, as the solution cools; still, however, coloured with resin. The crystals may be purified by repeated solutions and crystallizations.

11. 1. The narcotic principle, thus obtained, is white. It crystallizes in rectangular prisms with rhomboidal bases. It is destitute of taste and smell.

2. It is insoluble in cold water, but is soluble in 400 parts of boiling water, from which it precipitates again as the solution cools. When thus dissolved, it does not affect vegetable blue colours.

3. It is soluble in 24 parts of boiling alcohol, and in 100 of cold alcohol. Water precipitates it, in the state of a white powder.

4. Hot ether dissolves, but deposits it on cooling. When heated in a spoon, it melts like wax.

5. It is soluble in acids, and precipitated by alkalies. With nitric acid it dissolves, and becomes red; and much oxalic acid is formed, a bitter substance remaining.

6. It may be combined with water and alcohol, by the intervention of resin and extract, the presence of which seems originally to render it soluble in those fluids.

SECT. XVIII.

Suber, and its Acid.

This name is used to denote common cork wood, which appears to be possessed of peculiar properties, especially in its relation to nitric acid.

I. To a quantity of cork, grated into powder, and contained in a tubulated retort, add six times its weight of nitric acid, of the specific gravity 1.261; and distil the mixture, with a gentle heat, as long as any red vapours escape. As the distillation advances, a yellow matter, like wax, appears on the surface of the liquid. While the contents of the retort continue hot, they are to be

poured into a glass vessel, placed on a sand bath, and constantly stirred with a glass rod, by which means the liquid gradually becomes thick. As soon as white penetrating vapours appear, let it be removed from the sand bath, and stirred till it becomes cold. An orange-coloured mass will be obtained, of the consistence of honey, having a strong and sharp odour while hot, and a peculiar aromatic smell when cold. On this, pour twice its weight of boiling water; apply heat till it liquefies; and filter. The filtered liquor, as it cools, deposits a powdery sediment, and becomes covered with a thin pellicle. The sediment is to be separated by filtration; and the liquid reduced, by evaporation, nearly to dryness. This mass is the suberic acid. It may be purified, either by saturating it with alkali, and precipitating by an acid, or by boiling it with charcoal powder.

II. Suberic acid has the following properties :

1. It is not crystallizable.
2. It has an acid and slightly bitter taste; and, when dissolved in boiling water, it acts on the throat, and excites coughing.
3. It reddens vegetable blues, and changes the blue solution of indigo in sulphuric acid to green.
4. Cold water dissolves about 1-150th its weight, and boiling water half its weight.
5. It attracts moisture from the air.
6. When heated in a matrass, it sublimes, and is obtained in concentric circles, composed of numerous small points.
7. With alkalies, earths, and metallic oxides, it forms a class of salts called Suberates.

CHAP. XX.

RESULT OF THE SPONTANEOUS DECOMPOSITION OF
VEGETABLE SUBSTANCES.

SECT. I.

Vinous Fermentation.

The phenomena and results of this process should be accurately examined, by means of an apparatus similar to that described in Lavoisier's Elements, Part III. Ch. vi. A more simple one, however, will sufficiently answer the purpose. It may consist of a large glass matrass, shaped like that (fig. 4.) capable of holding 10 or 12 pints. Into the opening of the neck, a glass tube may be cemented, which is twice bent at right angles. The aperture of the other leg may terminate in a two-necked bottle, from which a bent glass tube is to proceed, and to be carried under the shelf of the pneumatic trough, or (which is better) into the receiving-pipe of a gazometer, fig. 35. b. The matrass may then be half filled with a solution of sugar in a proper quantity of water, or with an infusion of malt, with the addition of a little yeast. When placed in a room, the temperature of which is not below 60° Fahrenheit, the fermentation soon begins to take place; a brisk motion is observed in the liquid; it becomes turbid, and deposits some impurities, while a frothy scum rises to the surface. When the materials are in large quantity, viz. sufficient to fill a cask, a hissing noise is heard in the liquid, and its bulk increases so much, that, if the vessel were full, it now overflows. At

the same time, a considerable quantity of gas escapes, and passes, through the bent tube, into the receiver inverted in the pneumatic trough, or into the gazometer. During the process of fermentation, the liquor preserves a higher temperature than that of the surrounding atmosphere. After some days, these appearances gradually decline; and, if the process has been well conducted, and suspended at the proper period, the result is a liquor, not sweet, like that submitted to experiment, but having a vinous taste and smell.

When the gas, contained in the gazometer, is examined, it is found to be carbonic acid, holding in solution something which has a smell like that of the fermented liquor. On submitting the latter to distillation, we obtain a liquid considerably lighter than water, and having a strong spirituous taste. This, when deprived of the water with which it is combined, is alcohol.

SECT. II.

Alcohol.

I. To prepare alcohol, the spirit of wine of the shops may be employed. To a quantity contained in a glass vessel, the sub-carbonate of potash, perfectly dry, is to be added; the mixture is to be well shaken; the clear liquor decanted; and this is to be repeated as long as the alkali is moistened by the spirit. When enough has been employed, the next addition will fall to the bottom in a perfectly dry state. The dry muriate of lime may be advantageously used as a substitute for alkali. The clear liquid is next to be distilled by the heat of a water-bath; and the result is pure alcohol.

II. 1. Alcohol is considerably lighter than water, viz. in the proportion of 800 or 820 to 1000. The spirit of wine of the shops, however, containing much water, has the specific gravity of 835 or 840. The quantity of alcohol in mixtures of that fluid with water, of almost every degree of specific gravity, may be learned from Mr. Gilpin's copious Tables.*

* Phil. Trans. 1794; or an abstract in Nich. Journ. 4to, Vol. I. also the Appendix.

2. Alcohol unites chemically with water; caloric is evolved during this union; and the bulk of the resulting liquid is less than that of the two before admixture.— Thus a pint of alcohol and a pint of water, when the mixture has cooled to the temperature of the atmosphere, falls considerably short of two pints.

3. Alcohol is highly inflammable. During its combustion, carbonic acid is generated; and a quantity of water is produced which exceeds in weight the alcohol employed. An ingenious apparatus, for the purpose of ascertaining this fact, is described in the third part of Lavoisier's Elements, and is represented in the 9th plate to that work, fig. 5. The flame of alcohol acquires a red colour from muriate of lime, and a deep blood red from the muriate of strontites.

4. Alcohol boils at 176° , and is converted into a gas, which may be exploded by passing an electric spark through a mixture of it with oxygen gas.

5. It has never yet been congealed by any degree of artificial cold.

6. By transmission through an ignited porcelain tube, alcohol yields olefiant and hydro-carburet gases, with a small proportion of carbonic acid gas. A portion of fine light sooty charcoal remains in the tube.

7. Alcohol is a powerful solvent. It dissolves soap; vegetable extract; sugar; acidulous tartrate of potash; oxalic, camphoric, and benzoic acids; volatile oils; resins; and balsams. It combines, also, with sulphur, phosphorus and the pure alkalies.

By distillation with certain acids, alcohol forms ether.

SECT. III.

Ether.

1. To prepare *Sulphuric Ether*, pour into a retort any quantity of alcohol, and add, at intervals sufficient to allow the mixture to cool after each addition, an equal weight of concentrated sulphuric acid, agitating them together each time. Let the retort be placed in a sand bath previously heated, and be connected by means of an

adopter, with a tubulated receiver. To the tubulure of the receiver, a glass tube, twice bent at right angles, may be luted; and its aperture be immersed in a cupful of water or mercury. The condensable vapour is thus confined; while the gases that are produced are allowed to escape. The receiver should be kept cool by the application of moistened cloths. As soon as the materials begin to boil, ether is produced, and passes over into the receiver. The ebullition is to be continued, till white vapours appear in the retort, or a smell of sulphurous acid is perceived; and the receiver is then to be removed. The liquor, which it contains, will probably have a smell of sulphurous acid. To purify it, a small quantity of black oxide of manganese may be added, and the mixture may be kept in a bottle about 24 hours, agitating it occasionally. The clear liquid is then to be decanted, and distilled in a water bath, till one half has come over. This is to be preserved in a well closed vial.

II. *Nitric ether* may be prepared as follows. To two pints of alcohol, contained in a glass retort, add, by degrees, half a pound of nitric acid; and, after each addition, cool the materials, by setting the retort in a vessel of cold water. Distil the mixture by a very cautiously regulated heat, till about a pint and a half have come over. In this state the ether is far from being pure, and must be re-distilled, with the addition of pure potash, preserving only the first half or three-fourths that come over.

III. To prepare *muriatic ether*, add, to a mixture of 8 parts of manganese and 24 of muriate of soda, in a retort, 12 parts of sulphuric acid, previously mixed, with the necessary caution, with 8 of alcohol, and proceed to distillation. The ether, thus obtained, requires to be rectified by a second distillation from potash; and is still liable to be contaminated with sulphuric ether. A more certain process, which is not, however, unaccompanied with some difficulty, consists in passing oxygenised muriatic gas through alcohol: and, according to Klaproth, this kind of ether may, also, be safely and effectually prepared by distilling equal parts of alcohol and oxygenized muriate of tin. The distilled liquid is to be rectified by a second distillation with caustic potash.

IV. Sulphuric ether will be best employed to exhibit the properties of this substance, which are the following:

1. It is extremely light, having the specific gravity, when quite pure, of 758.

2. It does not, like alcohol, combine with water; and when the two fluids are shaken together, they separate again on standing. Water, however, retains about 1-10th its weight of ether. By repeated agitation with water, ether is brought to a high degree of purity, and acquires the property of dissolving caoutchouc.

The process, as performed in his presence by Mr. Winch of London, is described by Faujas St. Fond as follows. Let a pint of good sulphuric ether be put into a bottle (or, in preference, into the separator, plate I. fig. 3.) along with two pints of water, agitate the two liquids repeatedly together; then let them stand till the ether has risen to the surface; and draw off the water through the lower cock, leaving the ether in the vessel. Repeat this process three or four times, or till scarcely one-third of the ether remains; and decant the residue into a well stopped vial. In this ether the elastic gum, cut into thin slips, soon begins to swell; but its action is slow, and about the end of five days, the solution is completed. The method of forming tubes, &c. with this solution, is described in the first volume of Faujas's Travels in England, ch. 1.

3. Ether is extremely volatile. A few drops, poured on the hand, evaporate instantly; and produce a sense of great cold. By pouring a small stream of ether, on a thermometer bulb filled with water, from a capillary tube, the water is frozen, even in a warm summer atmosphere.

4. A mixture of sulphuric and muriatic ethers evaporates instantaneously, and produces a degree of cold considerably below 0 of Fahrenheit.

5. Ether assumes a solid form, by reducing its temperature to -46° Fahrenheit.

6. Ether is converted into a gas, either by raising its temperature, or diminishing the pressure of the atmosphere on its surface. The experiments proving this have already been described.

7. Ether does not dissolve the fixed alkalies, but combines with ammonia.

8. It dissolves essential oils and resins.

9. It is highly inflammable. This is best shewn by

passing a few drops, into a receiver furnished with a brass cap and cock, to which a small pipe is screwed, and inverted in water of the temperature of 100° . The receiver will be filled with the gas of ether, which may be expelled through the pipe and set on fire. It burns with a beautiful deep blue flame."

10. When it is previously mixed with oxygen gas, it detonates loudly. Into a strong two-ounce vial, filled with oxygen gas, and wrapped round with a cloth, let fall a drop of ether. On applying the flame of a candle, a violent detonation will ensue. Or to a portion of oxygen gas, contained in the detonating tube, fig. 28. pass up a drop or two of ether. The volume of the gas will be much increased; and, on transmitting an electric spark, a violent detonation will ensue, which will probably shatter the tube. In an experiment of Mr. Cruickshank, 3 measures of oxygen and 1 of ethereal gas detonated most violently, and 2 1-3 measures of carbonic acid gas were produced.

The following experiment, evincing the inflammability of ether, is described, by Mr. Cruickshank, in Nicholson's Journal, 4to. v. 205:

Fill a bottle of the capacity of three or four pints, with the pure oxygenized muriatic acid gas, taking care to expel the water as completely as possible. Then throw into it about a drachm or a drachm and a half of good ether, covering its mouth immediately with a piece of light wood or paper. In a few seconds white vapour will be seen moving circularly in the bottle, and this will soon be followed by an explosion, accompanied with flame. At the same time a considerable quantity of carbon will be deposited, and the bottle will be found to contain carbonic acid gas.

The same effect is produced, but more slowly, by alcohol; and, along with the carbonic acid and carbon, a little ether is produced.

11. According to Mr. Cruickshank, the proportion of carbon to hydrogen is in alcohol as 8 or 9 to 1, and in ether as 5 to 1.

SECT. IV.

Acetous and Acetic Acids.

1. Acetous acid may be obtained, by exposing to the atmosphere, the fermented liquor from malt or sugar, in a temperature between 75° and 90° of Fahrenheit. The liquor becomes warm; a number of ropy filaments appear; and, after several days exposure, it acquires an acid taste and smell. Little or no gas is produced; but, on the contrary, the atmospheric oxygen is absorbed. To this change, exposure to the air or to oxygen gas is an indispensable condition; whereas the vinous fermentation may be performed in close vessels, or at least in vessels, which only allow egress to the elastic fluids.

2. The vinegar thus obtained is far from being pure. It is contaminated with mucilage and extract, and may be purified from these by distillation, rejecting the first portions that come over. When thus distilled, it may be taken as an example of acetous acid.

Acetous acid may, also, be obtained by the distillation of wood, and various other vegetable substances, in iron vessels.

3. Acetous acid unites with alkalis, earths, and metallic oxides.

When potash, saturated with this acid, is evaporated to dryness, the salt assumes a black colour. On being re-dissolved, however, and again evaporated, the salt is obtained white, and, when fused and suffered to cool, affords the acetate of potash.

This salt strongly attracts moisture from the air, and is very soluble in water. When exposed to a pretty strong heat it is decomposed; carbonic acid and carburetted hydrogen gases come over; and, in the retort, there remains a mixture of carbon with carbonate of potash.

When this salt is distilled, with half its weight of sulphuric acid, the vegetable acid is expelled in a very concentrated form, mixed with sulphurous acid. Digestion with a small portion of manganese, and subsequent distillation, affords it pure. It may be obtained, also, by

distilling equal parts of acetate of lead and sulphate of copper.

The crystallized acetate of copper, contained in a glass retort, which may be nearly filled with the salt, is to be submitted to distillation in a sand heat. The acid that comes over has a green colour, and requires to be rectified by a second distillation.

4. The acetic acid, in the temperature of 38° of Fahrenheit, congeals or becomes glacial, and again liquefies at 39° .

5. When distilled with alcohol, it affords an ether termed acetic ether.

The acetous acid may be also combined with oxides of lead and of copper. Lead corroded into a white oxide, or rather sub-acetate, by the fumes of vinegar, forms ceruse, or white-lead, which, when dissolved in distilled vinegar and crystallized, constitutes the acetate, or sugar of lead. This salt is not decomposed without the addition of sulphuric acid. Copper, corroded in a similar manner, produces verdigris, which when dissolved in distilled vinegar, affords a crystallizable salt, called acetate of copper. From this the acetic acid may be separated by distillation per se.

From the experiments of Darracq, it appears that acetic acid differs from the acetous, only in containing less water and no mucilage. This chemist succeeded in converting the acetous into the acetic acid, merely by abstracting its water by muriate of lime, under circumstances where no farther oxygenation could take place. Both terms, however, may be retained for the sake of brevity of expression, the *acetous* denoting the dilute acid, as obtained by fermentation, &c. ; and the *acetic*, the acid in its most concentrated state.

CHAP. XXI.

ANIMAL SUBSTANCES.

SECT. I.

Animal Jelly, or Gelatine.

To exhibit the properties of gelatine, a solution of isinglass, in water, may be employed.

The distinguishing characters of gelatine, are,

1. Its solution in warm water concretes, on cooling, into a gelatinous mass ; and this effect takes place when the real quantity of solid gelatine, in the solution, does not exceed 1-100th part its weight. (Bostock.)
2. When the solution of gelatine is evaporated, it forms a tough semi-transparent mass, which may again be dissolved in water, and more readily with the aid of heat.
3. The solution of gelatine, exposed to the air, becomes sour, or undergoes the acetous fermentation.
4. It is precipitated by a solution of tan, in the form of a dense coagulum ; which, when dry, has a vitreous fracture ; is quite insoluble in water* and in alcohol ; but recovers its elasticity if moistened with warm water. —This compound is the preservative part of tanned leather, to which it imparts the property of resisting the transmission of moisture. An infusion of tan detects ge-

* Some exceptions, however, have been stated under the article TAN.

latine, when the latter constitutes only 1-5000th the bulk of the solution. (Bostock.)

5. Gelatine is not precipitated by Goulard's extract of lead (prepared by boiling litharge in distilled vinegar,) nor by a solution of corrosive muriate of mercury. It is slightly precipitated by nitrate of silver, and by muriate of gold, provided it is present in not less than 1 part to 50 of the solution. From Dr. Duncan, junior, I learn that gelatine is precipitated by sub-carbonate of potash.

6. Gelatine, when evaporated, forms the basis of portable soup, isinglass, glue,* &c. It may be extracted from all the soft parts of animals by boiling, and even from the bones. It constitutes the nutritious part of jellies, soups, &c.

SECT. II.

Albumen.

1. The white of an egg affords a good example of animal albumen; though it appears from Dr. Bostock's experiments, not to be this substance in a perfectly pure state, but to contain, in 100 parts, 80 water, $15\frac{1}{2}$ solid albumen, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ uncoagulable matter.

2. The solution of albumen, which may be obtained by agitating the white of an egg with water, is coagulable by heat; and gives a manifest opacity, even when it composes only 1-1000th the weight of the solution. In its undiluted state, it is coagulated by a temperature of 160° into a solid mass, of a smooth homogeneous texture. This coagulum cannot be again dissolved in water, and is soluble only in fixed alkalies. During its solution in alkalies, ammonia is evolved.

3. Albumen is precipitated, by solution of muriate of mercury, in a curdy form; not immediately, however, if the solution be very dilute. Nitro-muriate of tin precipitates it, but less readily. Infusion of galls, containing

* For an account of the preparation of glue, see Nicholson's 8vo. ii. 235.

in 100 parts $2\frac{1}{2}$ of solid extract, has no immediate effect on a solution containing 1-1000th part of albumen, but, after some time, a precipitate ensues. Goulard's extract occasions an abundant dense precipitate. Nitrate of silver, and muriate of gold, throw down a sediment; and a concentrated solution of alum coagulates undiluted albumen.

4. On exposure to the atmosphere in a moist state, albumen passes at once to the state of putrefaction.

5. When nitric acid is poured on coagulated albumen in a retort, and a gentle heat is applied, azotic gas is disengaged, which proceeds, not from the acid, but from the animal matter.

6. Albumen, like gelatine, is precipitated by tan; but the precipitate is characterized by very different appearances and properties.

7. Albumen forms a large part of the blood, and of the solid parts of animals; and, with the exception of water, perhaps composes the largest part of the animal body.—It is used in clarifying solutions of sugar and other liquids.

SECT. III.

Animal Mucilage.

This solution has been supposed to be merely a modification of gelatine; but, from the experiments of Dr. Bostock, it appears to be characterized by very different properties. These properties may be exhibited by saliva, diffused by agitation in water, or by agitating an oyster in water.

1. Mucilage does not coagulate on the application of heat; nor does it gelatinate, when its heated solution cools.

2. It is not precipitated by an infusion of tan; but, after some time, a slight turbidness is perceptible. This, however, appears to be owing to the presence of a small portion of gelatine.

3. Muriate of mercury, which is a delicate test of albumen, has no effect on mucilage; nor is it precipitated

by Goulard's extract, which indicates very minute quantities of jelly.

SECT. IV.

Gluten, or Fibrin.

I. Gluten forms the basis of the muscular or fleshy parts of animals, and remains combined with albumen, when all the soluble parts have been washed away by water. It may also be obtained from coagulated blood, by laying this on a linen strainer, and pouring water upon it, till a white fibrous matter alone remains.

For the purpose of submitting gluten to a series of experiments, Mr. Hatchett obtained it by digesting shreds of lean beef, during 15 days, in water, which was changed daily, the temperature being such as not to excite putrefaction. The shreds of muscle were then boiled for five hours every day, during three weeks, changing the water every day; and, finally, the residue was put into a press, and dried by the heat of a water bath.

II. Gluten has the following characters :

1. It has a white colour, and is destitute of taste and smell. It is soft and elastic, and becomes of a deeper colour on drying.

2. It undergoes no change, when exposed to the air in a moist state; nor is it changed by being kept under water.

3. When exposed to heat it contracts, and moves like a slip of horn, exhaling at the same time a smell of burning feathers. Exposed to a stronger heat in close vessels, it yields water, carbonate of ammonia, a thick heavy fetid oil, and carbonic acid, and hydro-carburet gases.—It leaves a larger proportion of charcoal, than either gelatine or albumen.

4. It is insoluble in water, except by the heat of a Papin's digester, and also in alcohol, ether, and oils.

5. It is readily soluble in acids. Sulphuric acid dissolves it, and acquires a deep-brown colour; charcoal is precipitated, and acetic acid is formed. Muriatic acid converts it into a green jelly. Acetic, citric, oxalic, and

tartarous acids, dissolve it ; and the solutions, when concentrated, assume the appearance of jelly.

6. From acid solutions, alkalies precipitate gluten, in flakes, which are soluble in hot water, and which resemble gelatine in properties.

7. Diluted nitric acid separates a larger quantity of azotic gas from gluten, than from any other animal substance. The dissolved portion, when concentrated by evaporation, and dissolved in hot water, is precipitated by tan and nitro-muriate of tin, and possesses, therefore, the characters of gelatine.

8. Concentrated solutions of potash and soda dissolve gluten, evolve ammonia, and afford a compound resembling soap.

SECT. V.

Urea.

I. Urea may be obtained by the following process :—Evaporate, by a very gentle heat, a portion of human urine, voided six or eight hours after a meal, to the consistence of syrup. In this state it concretes, on cooling, into a crystalline mass. Pour on this, at different times, four parts of alcohol, and apply a gentle heat, which will effect the solution of the greater portion. Distil the solution by alcohol in a retort, till it acquires the consistence of syrup, which is to be poured out of the retort. On cooling, it forms a crystallized substance, which is the urea.

II. 1. Urea has the form of crystalline plates, crossing each other in various directions. It has a yellowish-white colour ; a smell somewhat like that of garlic ; is viscid, and difficult to cut ; and has an acrid strong taste. It deliquesces, when exposed to the air, into a thick brown liquid. It is extremely soluble in water, and absorbs caloric during solution. Alcohol dissolves it readily, but in less proportion ; and the alcoholic solution yields crystals more readily than the watery one.

2. The concentrated solution of urea, in water, yields, on the addition of nitric acid, a copious precipitate of

bright pearl-coloured crystals. No other acid produces this singular effect.

3. The concentrated solution of urea, in water, is brown; but becomes yellow, when largely diluted. Infusion of galls gives it a yellowish-brown colour, but causes no precipitate; nor is it precipitated by infusion of tan.

4. When heat is applied to urea, it melts, swells, and evaporates, with an insufferably fetid smell. By distillation, it yields above 2-3ds its weight of carbonate of ammonia; about 1-4th of benzoic acid; besides charcoal, carburetted hydrogen, and muriates of soda and ammonia.

5. The solution of urea, in water, putrefies, and is slowly decomposed; but much more rapidly, if a little gelatine be added.

6. When a mixture of urea, with one-fourth its weight of diluted sulphuric acid, is distilled, a quantity of oil appears on the surface, which concretes by cooling; acetic acid passes over into the receiver; and sulphate of ammonia remains in the retort. The repetition of this process converts the whole of a portion of urea into ammonia and acetic acid.

7. Nitric acid acts rapidly on urea; nitrous, azotic, and carbonic acid gases, are disengaged; and prussic acid and ammonia are generated.

8. Muriatic acid dissolves urea without alteration.—Oxy-muriatic acid gas converts it into carbonate and muriate of ammonia.

9. The pure fixed alkalies dissolve urea, with a disengagement of ammonia.

10. Urea has the property of changing the form of the crystals of muriate of soda; a solution of that salt, mixed with one of urea, affording, on evaporation, octahedral crystals. Muriate of ammonia, on the contrary, which usually crystallizes in octohedrons, has the form of its crystals altered, by similar treatment, to that of cubes.

SECT. VI.

Animal Resins.

The properties of animal resins have not been fully investigated ; but, so far as they have hitherto been examined, they appear to differ considerably from vegetable resins.

1. The resin of bile may be obtained by the following process : To 32 parts of recent ox bile, add one of concentrated muriatic acid. When the mixture has stood some hours, strain it, in order to separate a white coagulated substance. Pour the filtered liquor, which has a fine green colour, into a glass vessel, and evaporate by a gentle heat. At a certain point of concentration, a green sediment falls down, which, after being separated from the liquid part, and washed, affords resin.

1. The resin of bile has a dark-brown colour ; but, if spread out fine, on a white ground, it exhibits a bright grass-green. It is intensely bitter.

2. At about 122° it melts, and in a high temperature burns rapidly. It is soluble both in cold and hot water, and still more soluble in alcohol, from which it is in part precipitated by water.

3. With pure alkalis it combines, and forms a compound, which has been compared to soap. From these it is precipitated unchanged by acids.

4. When further oxygenized, by adding oxymuriatic acid to bile, the resinous portion has its properties considerably changed ; it acquires the colour and consistence of tallow ; melts at 104° ; and dissolves in alcohol and in hot water.

5. Besides this resin, there are several animal substances which possess similar qualities. Such are the car-wax, ambergris, castor, &c. ; for an account of which the reader may consult the 4th volume of Thomson's Chemistry.

SECT. VII.

Animal Sugar.

Sugar enters pretty largely into the composition of milk ; and into the urine, when altered by disease. It may be obtained from milk by the following process :

I. Let whey be evaporated to the consistence of honey, and allowed to cool. It concretes into a solid mass, which is to be dissolved in water, clarified by white of eggs, filtered, and again evaporated to the consistence of syrup. On cooling, a number of brilliant white crystals are deposited, which are the sugar of milk.

1. Sugar of milk has a sweetish taste, and no smell.

2. It requires, for solution, seven parts of water, and is insoluble in alcohol. In these properties it differs from common sugar, and also in its relation to nitric acid, which will be afterwards stated.

II. The urine of diabetic patients yields sugar on evaporation, which approaches more nearly in its characters to those of vegetable sugar, but cannot, like the latter, be made to crystallize.

SECT. VIII.

Animal Oils.

Animal oils differ from the vegetable oils, in being generally solid at the temperature of the atmosphere, but are similar to them in other properties. Among animal oils, may be ranked butter, tallow, lard, suet, spermaceti, &c.

Spermaceti bears some resemblance to wax, but differs from it in other properties. It is more readily fusible ; is less soluble in boiling alcohol, of which it requires 150 times its weight ; it is copiously dissolved by boiling ether ; and the solution, on cooling, becomes a coagulated mass. Pure potash acts on it more remarkably than on wax ; and the compound is quite soluble. A heated

solution of ammonia affords a liquid, which is not precipitated by cooling, or by the addition of water ; but is decomposed by acids.

A singular instance of the production of animal oil from the lean or muscular part of animals, is presented by the conversion of muscle into a substance resembling spermaceti, and called by the French chemists *adipocire*. To effect this conversion, it is only necessary to confine the fleshy part of an animal in a box, with several holes in it, under the surface of a running stream. When thus confined, the change takes place spontaneously in the course of a few months. But it may be accomplished much sooner, by digesting animal muscle in strong nitric acid, and washing off the acid by water as soon as the change has ensued. The substance, thus obtained, may be bleached, by exposure to the oxygenized muriatic acid gas.

Adipocire has a light-yellow colour, the consistence of tallow, and a homogeneous texture. It melts at an inferior temperature to either of the foregoing bodies. Cold alcohol has little action, but, when heated, dissolves it rapidly. On cooling, it is deposited nearly white, and the alcohol has acquired a yellow tinge. Boiling ether dissolves nearly one-fourth, which separates, nearly white, on cooling. Fixed alkalies act on this, as on wax and spermaceti. Cold ammonia scarcely attacks it, and in this respect it differs from both the preceding substances.

SECT. IX.

Animal Acids.

Of the acids, that have hitherto been discovered to enter into the composition of animal substances, several have already been described, viz. the phosphoric, sulphuric, muriatic, carbonic, benzoic, acetic, and malic. Besides these the following are either component parts of animal substances, or are formed by treating them with chemical agents.

I. The *uric acid*, or *lithic acid*, is one of the most common ingredients of urinary calculi, and exists also in hu-

man urine. One species of calculus, which resembles wood in appearance, is almost entirely composed of it. In this state it has a brown colour ; is hard, and crystallized in small scales.

1. Uric acid is destitute both of taste and smell ; is insoluble in cold water, but soluble in 360 parts of boiling water ; from which, on cooling, most of the acid precipitates. The solution reddens vegetable blue colours, and combines readily with alkalies. The combination of uric acid with soda, forms the principal part of the concretions found near the joints of gouty persons ; and the substance occasionally voided along with urine, and called gravel, consists chiefly of uric acid.

2. Nitric acid dissolves the uric acid, and the solution has a pink colour, which it imparts to the skin when applied to it. If the solution be boiled, azotic and carbonic acids escape, and prussic acid is formed.

3. When the uric acid is distilled, about one-fourth passes over, little altered, and crystallized in plates ; a few drops of thick oil make their appearance ; and carbonate of ammonia, with some prussic acid, water, and carbonic acid, are obtained. In the retort there remains about 1-80th of charcoal.

II. The *rosacic acid* is well known to physicians, as a deposit from the urine at certain stages of fever, and other diseases, under the name of lateritious sediment.—According to Proust, this sediment contains, mixed with uric acid and phosphate of lime, a peculiar acid, which he terms the *rosacic*, from its resemblance in colour to that of the rose. This acid, he observes, differs chiefly from the uric, in being very soluble in hot water ; in having little tendency to crystallize ; and in precipitating muriate of gold of a violet colour.

III. The *amniotic acid* has been discovered by Fourcroy and Vauquelin, in the liquor of the amnios of the cow, from which, by slow evaporation, it separates in white crystals. It has a brilliant white appearance ; a slight degree of sourness ; reddens vegetable blues ; is scarcely soluble in cold water, but readily in hot, from which it separates, on cooling, in long crystals. It is also soluble in heated alcohol. It combines readily with alkalies.

IV. The *lactic acid* forms a component part of sour

milk; from which the acid may be obtained by gently evaporating it to about 1-8th; filtering, to separate the curd; and adding lime-water to the residue. An earthy precipitate is formed; and the lime combines with the acid, from which it may be precipitated by oxalic acid. The lactic acid is thus obtained in an impure state, dissolved in water. Evaporate the solution to the consistence of honey; on this pour alcohol, and filter the solution. When the alcohol is separated by distillation, the lactic acid remains pure.

This acid has a yellow colour, is not susceptible of being crystallized, and attracts the humidity of the air. It combines with the alkalies and earths, and forms deliquescent salts. It dissolves iron and zinc, with a production of hydrogen gas. It unites also with the oxides of other metals. In its properties, it bears most resemblance to acetic acid.

V. The *saccholactic acid* is formed by pouring on powdered sugar of milk, in a stoppered retort, four times its weight of nitric acid, and distilling off a considerable portion of the liquor. On leaving it to crystallize, oxalic acid is obtained; but if, instead of this, the liquid be suddenly diluted with water, a white sediment forms, which may be separated by decantation and washing.

It may also be obtained by pouring on one part of gum-arabic in a stoppered retort, two parts of nitric acid; applying heat a short time, till a little nitrous and carbonic acid gases have come over, and then allowing the mixture to cool. A white powder gradually separates, from which the liquid is to be decanted. The powder, after being washed several times with cold water, is *saccholactic acid*.

This acid is about 1-4th more soluble in hot than in cold water. Of the former it requires 80 parts. The solution is acid, and reddens the colour of litmus. It combines with alkalies, &c. and forms a genus of salts called *Saccholactates*.

VI. The *sebacic acid* may be obtained from various species of animal fat. The simplest process for separating it is that of Guyton. To hog's lard, melted in an iron kettle, add pulverized quicklime, and stir the mixture for a few minutes, raising the heat towards the end of the process. When cold, the lard will be found to have less

solidity. Pour on it a large quantity of water ; boil them together, and filter the liquid. A brown acid salt will separate on cooling, consisting of lime, united with sebacic acid. This salt is contaminated with an admixture of oil, from which it may be separated by a degree of heat barely sufficient to decompose the oil. Re-dissolve and crystallize the residue ; and, when again dry, distil it with 1-3d its weight of sulphuric acid, diluted with water. Its purity from the latter acid may be ascertained by its affording, with a solution of acetate of lead, a precipitate soluble in nitric acid.

1. The sebacic acid is liquid, white, and has a penetrating smell. It reddens vegetable colours.

2. By distillation it becomes yellow, gives carbonic acid, and is partly decomposed.

3. It unites with alkalies ; and, when mingled with nitric acid, dissolves gold.

4. Nitrate and acetate of lead give a precipitate, soluble in acetic acid. It decomposes the muriate of mercury.

VII. The *prussic acid* is formed, chiefly during the decomposition of animal substances in high temperatures. Three parts of blood, evaporated to dryness in an iron dish, are to be mixed with one part of subcarbonate of potash (common pearlash,) and calcined in a crucible, which should be only be 2-3ds filled by the materials, and covered with a lid. The calcination must be continued, with a moderate heat, as long as a blue flame issues from the crucible ; and when it becomes faint, and likely to be extinguished, the process must be stopped. Throw the mass, when cold, into 10 or 12 parts of water ; allow it to soak a few hours ; and then boil them together in an iron kettle. Filter the liquor, and continue pouring hot water on the mass, as long as it acquires any taste.—To this solution, add one, composed of two parts of alum and one of sulphate of iron, in 8 or 10 of boiling water ; and continue the mixture as long as any effervescence and precipitation ensues. Wash the precipitate several times with boiling water. It will have a green colour ; but on the addition of a quantity of muriatic acid, equal to twice that of the sulphate of iron which has been used, it will assume a beautiful blue colour. Wash it again with water, and dry it in a gentle heat. In this

state it is the pigment called Prussian blue, which consists of a mixture of prussiate of iron, with alumine.—Its properties have already been described. (Chap. xviii. sect. 6. iv.)

From prussiate of iron, the prussic acid may be separated by the following process :

Mix two ounces of red oxide of mercury, prepared by nitric acid, with four ounces of finely-powdered Prussian blue, and boil the mixture with twelve ounces of water in a glass vessel, shaking frequently. Filter the solution, which is a prussiate of mercury, while hot ; and, when cool, add to it, in a bottle, two ounces of iron-filings, and six or seven drachms of sulphuric acid ; shake these together, decant the clear liquor into a retort, and distil off one-fourth of the liquor.

The distilled liquor is the prussic acid, which has a peculiar smell, a sweet taste, and does not, like other acids, redden vegetable blue colours, but combines with alkalis and earths.

Prussic acid has the following properties :

1. It has a sweetish taste, and a smell resembling that of bitter almonds.
2. It does not redden blue vegetable colours.
3. It precipitates sulphurets, and curdles soap.
4. It separates alumine from nitric acid. Oxygenized muriatic acid entirely decomposes it.
5. It does not appear to have a strong affinity for alkalis ; nor does it take them from carbonic acid ; for no effervescence arises on adding it to a solution of alkaline carbonates. On the contrary, its combinations with alkalis and earths are decomposed by exposure to carbonic acid, even when highly diluted, as in atmospheric air. It readily combines, however, with pure alkalis ; destroys their alkaline properties, and forms crystallizable salts.
6. It does not precipitate iron blue, but green ; and this green precipitate is soluble in acids. The rays of light render the green precipitate blue ; as do also the addition of metallic iron, or sulphurous acid.

The *zoonic acid* has been shewn by Thenard to be merely the acetous, holding some animal matter in solution ; and the *formic acid*, or acid of ants, has been proved to be a compound of acetic and malic acids.

PART II.**DIRECTIONS FOR EXAMINING MINERAL WATERS,
AND MINERAL BODIES IN GENERAL.****CHAP. I.****ANALYSIS OF MINERAL WATERS.**

THE complete and accurate analysis of mineral waters, and of mineral bodies in general, is one of the most difficult subjects of chemical manipulation, and requires a very extensive acquaintance with the properties and habitudes of a numerous class of substances. Long and attentive study of the science is therefore essential to qualify any one for undertaking exact and minute determinations of the proportion of the component parts of bodies. Such minuteness, however, is scarcely ever required in the experiments that are subservient to the ordinary purposes of life ; a general knowledge of the composition of bodies being sufficient to assist in directing the most useful applications of them. I shall not attempt, therefore, to lay down rules for accurate analysis, but shall only describe such experiments as are suited to afford an insight into the kind, but not to decide the exact proportion of the constituent principles of natural waters, and of mineral substances in general.

Before proceeding, however, to the analysis of a water, it is proper to inquire into its natural history, and to ex-

amine attentively its physical characters. The nature of the strata, in the neighbourhood of the spring, will often furnish useful suggestions respecting the contents of the water; the period of the year should be stated at which the analysis was performed; and whether after a rainy or dry season. The temperature of the water must be carefully observed, as it issues from the spring; and the quantity inquired into, which it yields in a given time. The sensible qualities of taste, smell, degree of transparency, &c. are also best ascertained at the fountain-head. The specific gravity of the water may be found by weighing a bottle, which is capable of containing a known weight of distilled water, at a certain temperature, filled with the water, under examination, at the same temperature. It is proper, also, to examine, on the spot, the channel through which the water has flowed; to collect any deposit that may have been formed; and to investigate its nature.

The effects of heat on the water may be next tried.—Many waters lose their transparency when their temperature is raised, and let fall a considerable deposit. The quality of this may, in some degree, be conjectured from its appearance. If its colour be brownish-yellow, it consists, either wholly or chiefly, of oxide of iron; if white, or nearly white, it is composed principally of the earthy carbonates. A mineral water, containing iron, deposits that metal also, when exposed to the atmosphere; and a thin pellicle forms on its surface, whether stagnant in a natural reservoir, or collected in a separate vessel. By this exposure, iron may be sometimes discovered in a water, though not easily detected at first; because it becomes further oxydized, and more sensible to the action of tests. Sulphuretted hydrogenous waters exhibit a sediment, even when preserved in a well-closed vial; the hydrogen quitting the sulphur, which settles in the form of a white powder.

SECT. I.

Examination of Mineral Waters by Re-agents.

Water is never presented by nature in a state of complete purity. Even when collected as it descends in the form of rain, chemical tests detect in it a minute proportion of foreign ingredients. And when it has been absorbed by the earth, has traversed its different strata, and is returned to us by springs, it is found to have acquired various impregnations. The readiest method of judging of the contents of natural waters, is by applying what are termed tests, or re-agents ; *i. e.* substances which, on being added to a water, exhibit, by the phenomena they produce, the nature of the saline, or other ingredients.— For example, if, on adding infusion of litmus to any water, its colour is changed to red, we infer, that the water contains an uncombined acid : if this change ensues, even after the water has been boiled, we judge that the acid is a fixed, and not a volatile one : and if, on adding the muriated barytes, a precipitate falls down, we safely conclude, that the peculiar acid, present in the water, is, either entirely or in part, the sulphuric acid. I shall first enumerate the tests generally employed in examining waters, and describe their application ; and, afterwards, indicate by what particular tests the substances, generally found in waters, may be detected.

In many instances, however, a mineral water may contain a saline, or other ingredient, but in such small quantity as to escape discovery by tests. It is therefore advisable to apply the tests of fixed substances to the water, after reducing its bulk one-half, or more, by evaporation, as well as in its natural state.

The use of tests, or re-agents, has been employed by Mr. Kirwan to ascertain, by a careful examination of the precipitate, not only the *kind*, but the *quantity*, of the ingredients of mineral waters. This will be best understood from an example. It is an established fact, that 100 parts of crystallized muriate of soda, when completely decomposed by nitrate of silver, yield, as nearly as possible, 235 of precipitate. From the weight of the

precipitate, separated by nitrate of silver from a given quantity of any water, it is therefore easy, when no other muriatic salt is present, to infer, what quantity of muriate of soda was contained in the water; since every hundred grains of muriated silver indicate, pretty accurately, $42\frac{1}{2}$ of crystallized common salt. The same mode of estimation may be applied in various other instances; and the rule for each individual case is given by Mr. Kirwan, in part ii. chap. 2. of his "Essay on the Analysis of Mineral Waters." In most instances, also, it will be found stated in the following description of the use of the various re-agents.

I. *Infusion of Litmus, Syrup of Violets, &c.*

The infusion of litmus is prepared by steeping this substance, first bruised in a mortar, and tied up in a thin rag, in distilled water, which extracts its blue colour.

If the colour of the infusion tends too much to purple, it may be amended by a drop or two of solution of pure ammonia; but of this no more must be added than is barely sufficient, lest the delicacy of the test should be impaired.

The syrup of violets is not easily obtained pure. The genuine syrup may be distinguished from the spurious by a solution of corrosive sublimate, which changes the former to green, while it reddens the latter. When it can be procured genuine, it is an excellent test of acids, and may be employed in the same manner as the infusion of litmus.

Paper stained with the juice of the March violet, or with that of the scrapings of radishes, answers a similar purpose. In staining paper for the purposes of a test, it must be used unsized; or, if sized, it must previously be well washed with warm water; because the alum, which enters into the composition of the size, will otherwise change the vegetable colour to red.

In the Philosophical Magazine, vol. 1. p. 180, may be found some recipes for other test liquors, invented by Mr. Watt.

Infusion of litmus is a test of most uncombined acids.

1. If the infusion redden the unboiled, but not the

boiled water, under examination ; or if the red colour, occasioned by adding the infusion to a recent water, return to blue, on boiling ; we may infer, that the acid is a volatile one, and most probably the carbonic acid. Sulphuretted hydrogen gas, dissolved in water, also reddens litmus, but not after boiling.

2. To ascertain whether the change be produced by carbonic acid or by sulphuretted hydrogen, when experiment shows that the reddening cause is volatile, add a little lime-water, or, in preference, barytic water. This, if carbonic acid be present, will occasion a precipitate, which will dissolve, with effervescence, on adding a little muriatic acid. Sulphuretted hydrogen may also be contained, along with carbonic acid, in the same water ; which will be determined by the tests hereafter to be described.

3. Paper tinged with litmus is also reddened by the presence of carbonic acid, but regains its blue colour on drying. The mineral and fixed acids redden it permanently. That these acids, however, may produce their effect, it is necessary that they should be present in a sufficient proportion. (See Kirwan on Mineral Waters, p. 40.) The dark-blue paper, which is generally wrapped round loaves of refined sugar, is not discoloured by carbonic acid or sulphuretted hydrogen, but only by the stronger acids.

II. Infusion of Litmus reddened by Vinegar,—Spirituos Tincture of Brazil-wood,—Tincture of Turmeric, and Paper stained with each of these three Substances,—Syrup of Violets.

All these different tests have one and the same object.

1. Infusion of litmus reddened by vinegar, or litmus paper reddened by vinegar, has its blue colour restored by pure alkalies and pure earths, and by carbonated alkalies and earths.

2. Turmeric paper and tincture are changed to a reddish-brown by alkalies, whether pure or carbonated, and by pure earths, but not by carbonated earths.

3. The red infusion of brazil-wood, and paper stained with it, become blue by alkalies and earths, and even by

the latter, when dissolved by an excess of carbonic acid. In the last-mentioned case, however, the change will either cease to appear, or will be much less remarkable, when the water has been boiled.

4. Syrup of violets, when pure, is, by the same causes, turned green* : as is also paper stained with the juice of the violet, or with the scrapings of radishes.

III. *Tincture of Galls.*

Tincture of galls is the test generally employed for discovering iron ; with all the combinations of which it produces a black tinge, more or less intense according to the quantity of iron. The iron, however, in order to be detected by this test, must be in the state of red oxide, or, if oxydized in a less degree, its effect will not be apparent, unless after standing some time in contact with the air. By applying this test before and after evaporation, or boiling, we may know whether the iron be held in solution by carbonic acid, or by a fixed acid. For,

1. If it produce its effect before the application of heat, and not afterward, carbonic acid is the solvent.

2. If after, as well as before, a mineral acid is the solvent.

3. If, by the boiling, a yellowish powder be precipitated, and yet galls continue to strike the water black, the iron, as often happens, is dissolved both by carbonic acid and by a fixed acid. A neat mode of applying the gall-test was used by M. Klaproth, in his analysis of the Carlsbad water ; a slice of the gall-nut was suspended by a silken thread in a large bottle of the recent water, and so small was the quantity of iron, that it could only be discovered in water fresh from the spring, by a slowly-formed and dark cloud, surrounding the re-agent. (Klaproth, vol. i. p. 279.)

* According to Mr. Accum, syrup of violets, which has lost its colour by keeping, may be restored by agitation, during a few minutes, in contact with oxygen gas.

IV. *Sulphuric Acid.*

1. Sulphuric acid discovers, by a slight effervescence, the presence of carbonic acid, whether uncombined or united with alkalies or earths.

2. If lime be present, whether pure or uncombined, the addition of sulphuric acid occasions, after a few days, a white precipitate.

3. Barytes is precipitated instantly, in the form of a white powder.

4. Nitric and muriatic salts, in a dry state, or dissolved in very little water, on adding sulphuric acid, and applying heat, are decomposed; and if a stopper, moistened with solution of pure ammonia, be held over the vessel, white clouds will appear. For distinguishing whether nitric or muriatic acid be the cause of this appearance, rules will be given hereafter.

V. *Nitric and Nitrous Acids.*

These acids, if they occasion effervescence, give the same indications as the sulphuric. The nitrous acid has been recommended as a test distinguishing between hepatic waters that contain hydro-sulphuret of potash, and those that contain only sulphuretted hydrogen gas. In the former case, a precipitate ensues on adding nitrous acid, and a very fetid smell arises; in the latter, a slight cloudiness only appears, and the smell of the water becomes less disagreeable.

VI. *Oxalic Acid and Oxalates.*

This acid is a most delicate test of lime, which it separates from all its combinations.

1. If a water, which is precipitated by oxalic acid, become milky on adding a watery solution of carbonic acid, or by blowing air through it from the lungs, by means of a quill or glass tube, we may infer, that pure lime (or barytes, which has never yet been found pure in waters) is present.

2. If the oxalic acid occasion a precipitate before, but not after boiling, the lime is dissolved by an excess of carbonic acid;

3. If after boiling, by a fixed acid. A considerable excess of any of the mineral acids, however, prevents the oxalic acid from occasioning a precipitate, even though lime be present; because some acids decompose the oxalic, and others, dissolving the oxalate of lime, prevent it from appearing. (Vid. Kirwan on Waters, page 82.)

The oxalate of ammonia, or of potash, (which may easily be formed by saturating their respective carbonates with a solution of oxalic acid) are not liable to the above objection, and are preferable, as re-agents, to the uncombined acid. Yet even these oxalates fail to detect lime when supersaturated with muriatic or nitric acids; and, if such an excess be present, it must be saturated, before adding the test, with pure ammonia. A precipitation will then be produced.

The quantity of lime, contained in the precipitate, may be known, by first calcining it with access of air, which converts the oxalate into a carbonate; and by expelling, from this last, its carbonic acid, by calcination, with a strong heat, in a covered crucible. According to Dr. Marcet, 117 grains of sulphate of lime give 100 of oxalate of lime, dried at 160° Fahrenheit.

The fluete of ammonia, recommended by Scheele, I find to be a most delicate test of lime. It may be prepared by adding carbonate of ammonia to diluted fluoric acid, in a leaden vessel, observing that there be a small excess of acid.

VII. *Pure Alkalies and carbonated Alkalies.*

1. The pure fixed alkalies precipitate all earths and metals, whether dissolved by volatile or fixed menstrua, but only in certain states of dilution; for example, sulphate of alumine may be present in water, in the proportion of 4 grains to 500, without being discovered by pure fixed alkalies. As the alkalies precipitate so many substances, it is evident that they cannot afford any very precise information, when employed as re-agents. From the colour of the precipitate, as it approaches to a pure white,

or recedes from it, an experienced eye will judge, that the precipitated earth contains less or more of metallic admixture ; and its precise composition must be ascertained by rules which will presently be given.

2. Pure fixed alkalies also decompose all salts with basis of ammonia, which becomes evident by its smell, (except the salts are dissolved in much water) and also by the white fumes it exhibits when a stopper, moistened with muriatic acid, is brought near.

3. Carbonates of potash and of soda have similar effects.

4. Pure ammonia precipitates all earthy and metallic salts. Beside this property, it also imparts a deep blue colour to any liquid that contains copper or nickel in a state of solution.

5. Carbonate of ammonia has the same properties, except that it does not precipitate magnesia from its combinations. Hence, to ascertain whether this earth be present in any solution, add the carbonate of ammonia till no farther precipitation ensues ; filter the liquor ; raise it nearly to 212° Fahrenheit ; and then add pure ammonia. If any precipitation now occurs, we may infer the presence of magnesia. It must be acknowledged, that zircon, yttria, and glucine, would escape discovery by this process ; but they have never yet been found in mineral waters ; and their presence can scarcely be expected.

VIII. *Lime-Water.*

1. Lime-water is applied to the purposes of a test, chiefly for detecting carbonic acid. Let any liquor supposed to contain this acid be mixed with an equal bulk of lime-water. If carbonic acid be present, either free or combined, a precipitate will immediately appear, which, on adding a few drops of muriatic acid, will again be dissolved with effervescence.

2. Lime-water will also show the presence of corrosive sublimate by a brick-dust-coloured sediment. If arsenous acid (common arsenic) be contained in a liquid, lime-water, when added, will occasion a precipitate, consisting of lime and arsenous acid, which is very difficultly soluble in water. This precipitate, when mixed up with

oil, and laid on hot coals, yields the well-known garlic smell of arsenic.

IX. *Pure Barytes, and its Solution in Water.*

1. A solution of pure barytes is even more effectual than lime-water in detecting the presence of carbonic acid, and is much more portable and convenient; since, from the crystals of this earth, the barytic solution may at any time be immediately prepared. In discovering carbonic acid, the solution of barytes is used similarly to lime-water, and, if this acid be present, gives, in like manner, a precipitate soluble with effervescence in dilute muriatic acid.

2. The barytic solution is also a most sensible test of sulphuric acid and its combinations, which it indicates by a precipitate not soluble in muriatic acid.—Pure strontites has similar virtues as a test. The quantity of the precipitated substance, indicated by the weight of the precipitate, will be stated in No. XV.

X. *Metals.*

1. Of the metals, silver and mercury are tests of the presence of hydro-sulphurets, and of sulphuretted hydrogen gas. If a little quicksilver be put into a bottle containing water impregnated with either of these substances, its surface soon acquires a black film, and, on shaking the bottle, a blackish powder separates from it. Silver is speedily tarnished by the same cause.

2. The metals may be used also as tests of each other, on the principle of elective affinity. Thus, for example, a polished iron plate, immersed in a solution of sulphate of copper, soon acquires a coat of this metal; and the same in other similar examples.

XI. *Sulphate of Iron.*

This is the only one of the sulphates, except that of silver, applicable to the purposes of a test. When used

with this view, it is generally employed for ascertaining the presence of oxygen gas, of which a natural water may contain a small quantity.

A water, suspected to contain this gas, may be mixed with a little recently-dissolved sulphate of iron, and kept corked up, in a vial completely filled by the mixture. If an oxide of iron be precipitated in the course of a few days, the water may be inferred to contain oxygen gas.

XII. *Sulphate, Nitrate, and Acetate of Silver.*

These solutions are all, in some measure, applicable to the same purpose.

1. They are peculiarly adapted to the discovery of muriatic acid and of muriates. For the silver, quitting its solvent, combines with the muriatic acid, and forms a flaky precipitate, which, at first, is white, but, on exposure to the sun's light, acquires a blueish, and finally a black colour. This precipitate Dr. Black states to contain, in 1000 parts, as much muriatic acid as would form $425\frac{1}{2}$ of crystallized muriate of soda, which estimate scarcely differs at all from that of Klaproth. The same quantity of muriate of silver (1000 parts) indicates, according to Kirwan, $454\frac{1}{2}$ of muriate of potash. A precipitation, however, may arise from other causes, which it may be proper to state.

2. The solutions of silver in acids are precipitated by carbonated alkalies and earths. The agency of the alkalies and earths may be prevented, by previously saturating them with a few drops of the same acid in which the silver is dissolved.

3. The nitrate and acetate of silver are decomposed by the sulphuric and sulphurous acids; but this may be prevented by adding, previously, a few drops of nitrate or acetate of barytes, and, after allowing the precipitate to subside, the clear liquor may be decanted, and the solution of silver added. Should a precipitation now take place, the presence of muriatic acid, or some one of its combinations, may be suspected. To obviate uncertainty, whether a precipitation be owing to sulphuric or muriatic acid, a solution of sulphate of silver may be employed,

which, when no uncombined alkali or earth is present, is affected only by the latter acid.

4. The solutions of silver are also precipitated by sulphuretted hydrogen, and by hydro-sulphurets; but the precipitate is then reddish, or brown, or black; or it may be, at first, white, and afterwards become speedily brown or black. It is soluble, in great part, in dilute nitrous acid, which is not the case if occasioned by muriatic or sulphuric acid.

5. The solutions of silver are precipitated by extractive matter; but, in this case, also, the precipitate has a dark colour, and is soluble in nitrous acid.

XIII. *Nitrate and Acetate of Lead.*

1. Acetate of lead, the most eligible of these two tests, is precipitated by sulphuric and muriatic acids; but, as of both these we have much better indicators, I do not enlarge on its application to this purpose.

2. The acetate is also a test of sulphuretted hydrogen and of hydro-sulphurets of alkalies, which occasion a black precipitate; and, if a paper, on which characters are traced with a solution of acetate of lead, be held over a portion of water containing sulphuretted hydrogen gas, they are soon rendered visible; especially when the water is a little warmed.

3. The acetate of lead is employed in the discovery of uncombined boracic acid, a very rare ingredient of waters. To ascertain whether this be present, some cautions are necessary. (a) The uncombined alkalies and earths (if any be suspected) must be saturated with acetic or acetous acid. (b) The sulphates must be decomposed by acetate or nitrate of barytes, and the muriates by acetate or nitrate of silver. The filtered liquor, if boracic acid be contained in it, will continue to give a precipitate, which is soluble in nitric acid of the specific gravity of 1.3.

XIV. *Nitrate of Mercury, prepared with and without Heat.*

This solution, differently prepared, is sometimes employed as a test. But, since other tests answer the same

purposes more effectually, it is unnecessary to describe the application of mercurial solutions. For the same reason, also, oxygenized muriate of mercury is of little use in discovering the ingredients of mineral waters.

XV. *Muriate, Nitrate, and Acetate of Barytes.*

1. These solutions are all most delicate tests of sulphuric acid and of its combinations, with which they give a white precipitate, insoluble in dilute muriatic acid. They are decomposed, however, by carbonates of alkali; but the precipitate occasioned by carbonates is soluble in dilute muriatic or nitric acid, with effervescence, and may even be prevented by adding, previously, a few drops of the same acid as that contained in the barytic salt, which is employed.

One hundred grains of dry sulphate of barytes contain (according to Klaproth, vol. I. p. 168.) about $45\frac{1}{2}$ of sulphuric acid of the specific gravity 1850; according to Clayfield, (Nicholson's Journal, 4to. iii. 38.) 33 of acid, of sp. gr. 2240; according to Thenard, after calcination, about 25; and, according to Mr. Kirwan, after ignition, 23.5 of real acid. The same chemist states, that 170 grains of ignited sulphate of barytes denote 100 of dried sulphate of soda; while 136.36 of the same substance indicate 100 of dry sulphate of potash; and 100 parts result from the precipitation of 52.11 of sulphate of magnesia.

From Klaproth's experiments, it appears, that 1000 grains of sulphate of barytes indicate 595 of desiccated sulphate of soda, or 1416 of the crystallized salt. The same chemist has shown, that 100 grains of sulphate of barytes are produced by the precipitation of 71 grains of sulphate of lime.

2. Phosphoric salts occasion a precipitate also, which is soluble in muriatic acid without effervescence.

XVI. *Prussiates of Potash and of Lime.*

Of these two, the prussiate of potash is the most eligible. When pure, it does not speedily assume a blue

colour on the addition of an acid, nor does it *immediately* precipitate muriated barytes.

Prussiate of potash is a very sensible test of iron, with the solutions of which in acids it produces a Prussian blue precipitate, in consequence of a double elective affinity. To render its effect more certain, however, it may be proper to add, previously, to any water suspected to contain iron, a little muriatic acid, with a view to the saturation of uncombined alkalies or earths, which, if present, prevent the detection of very minute quantities of iron.

1. If a water, after boiling and filtration, does not afford a blue precipitate, on the addition of prussiate of potash, the solvent of the iron may be inferred to be a volatile one, and probably the carbonic acid.

2. Should the precipitation ensue in the boiled water, the solvent is a fixed acid, the nature of which must be ascertained by other tests.

In using the Prussian test for the discovery of iron, considerable caution is necessary, in order to attain accurate results. The prussiate should, on all occasions, be previously crystallized; and the quantity of oxide of iron, essential to its constitution, or at least an invariable accompaniment, should be previously ascertained in the following manner. Expose a known weight of the crystallized salt to a low red-heat in a silver crucible. After fusing and boiling up, it will become dry, and will then blacken. Let it cool; wash off the soluble part; collect the rest on a filter; dry it, and again calcine it with a little wax. Let it be again weighed, and the result will shew the proportion of oxide of iron present in the salt which has been examined. This varies from 22 to 30 and upwards per cent. When the test is employed for discovering iron, let a known weight of the salt be dissolved in a given quantity of water; add the solution gradually; and observe how much is expended in effecting the precipitation. Before collecting the precipitate, warm the liquid, which generally throws down a further portion of prussian blue. Let the whole be washed and dried, and then calcined with wax. From the weight of the oxide obtained, deduct that quantity, which, by the former experiment, is known to be present in the prussiate that has been added; and the remainder will denote the quantity

of oxide of iron, present in the liquid which is under examination.

3. Besides iron, the prussiated alkalies also precipitate muriate of alumine. No conclusion, therefore, can be deduced, respecting the non-existence of muriate of alumine, from any process, in which the prussic test has previously been used. It will, therefore, be proper, if a salt of alumine be indicated by other tests, to examine the precipitate effected by prussiate of potash. This may be done by repeatedly boiling it to dryness with muriatic acid, which takes up the alumine, and leaves the prussiate of iron. From the muriatic solution, the alumine may be precipitated by a solution of carbonate of potash.

4. According to Klaproth, (II. 55.) solutions of yttria, (which earth, however, is not likely to be present in any mineral water) afford with the prussian test, a white precipitate, passing to pearl-grey, which consists of prussiate of yttria. This precipitate disappears on adding an acid, and hence may be separated from prussiated iron. The same accurate chemist states, that the prussian test has no action on salts with base of glucine (ib.); but that it precipitates zircon from its solutions. (II. 214.)

The prussiated alkalies decompose, also, all metallic solutions, excepting those of gold, platina, iridium, rhodium, osmium, and antimony.

XVII. *Succinate of Soda and of Ammonia.*

1. The succinate of soda was first recommended by Gehlen, and afterwards employed by Klaproth (Contributions, II. 48.) for the discovery and separation of iron. The salt with base of ammonia has also been used for a similar purpose by Dr. Marcet, physician to Guy's Hospital, in a skilful analysis of the Brighton chalybeate, which is published in the new edition of Dr. Saunders's Treatise on Mineral Waters.

The succinic test is prepared by saturating carbonate of soda or ammonia with this acid, already described, Ch. XIX. Sect. 8. In applying the test, it is necessary not to use more than is sufficient for the purpose; because an excess of it re-dissolves the precipitate. The best mode of proceeding, is to heat the solution contain-

ing iron, and to add gradually the solution of succinate, until it ceases to produce any effect. A brownish precipitate is obtained, consisting of succinate of iron. This, when calcined with a little wax, in a low red heat, gives an oxide of iron, containing about 70 per cent. of the metal. From Dr. Marcet's experiments, it appears, that 100 grains of iron, dissolved in sulphuric acid, then precipitated by the succinate test, and afterwards burned with wax, give 148 of oxide of iron; that is, 100 grains of the oxide indicate about $67\frac{1}{2}$ of metallic iron.

2. The succinates, however, it is stated by Dr. Marcet and Mr. Ekeberg, precipitate alumine, provided there be no considerable excess of acid in the aluminous salt. On magnesia it has no action, and hence may be successfully employed in the separation of these two earths. If 100 parts of octahedral crystals of alum be entirely decomposed by succinate of ammonia, they give precisely 12 parts of alumine calcined in a dull red heat. The succinate of ammonia, it is stated by Mr. Ekeberg (*Journ. des Mines*, No. 70.) precipitates glucine; and the same test, according to Klaproth, (II. 214.) throws down zircon from its solutions.

XVIII. *Phosphate of Soda.*

An easy and valuable method of precipitating magnesia has been suggested by Dr. Wollaston. It is founded on the property which fully neutralized carbonate of ammonia possesses; first to dissolve the carbonate of magnesia, formed when it is added to the solution of a magnesian salt, and afterwards to yield the earth to phosphoric acid, with which and ammonia it forms a triple salt. For this purpose, a solution of carbonate of ammonia, prepared with a portion of that salt which has been exposed, spread on a paper, for a few hours to the air, is to be added to the solution of the magnesian salt sufficiently concentrated; or to a water suspected to contain magnesia, after being very much reduced by evaporation. No precipitate will appear, till a solution of phosphate of soda is added, when an abundant one will fall down. Let this be dried in a temperature not exceeding 100° Fahrenheit. One hundred grains of it will

indicate 19 of pure magnesia, or about 64 of muriate of magnesia.

XIX. *Muriate of Lime.*

Muriate of lime is principally of use in discovering the presence of alkaline carbonates, which, though they very rarely occur, have sometimes been found in mineral waters. Carbonate of potash exists in the waters of Aix-la-Chapelle ; that of soda, in the water of a few springs and lakes ; and the ammoniacal carbonate was detected by Mr. Cavendish in the waters of Rathbone-place. Of all the three carbonates, muriate of lime is a sufficient indicator ; for those salts separate from it a carbonate of lime, soluble with effervescence in muriatic acid.

With respect to the discrimination of the different alkalies, potash may be detected by the nitro-muriate of platina, which distinctly and immediately precipitates that alkali and its compounds, and is not affected by soda. Carbonate of ammonia may be discovered by its smell ; and by its precipitating a neutral salt of alumine, while it has no action apparently on magnesian salts.

To estimate the proportion of an alkaline carbonate present in any water, saturate with sulphuric acid, and note the weight of real acid which is required. Now 100 grains of real sulphuric acid saturate 121.48 potash, and 78.32 soda.

XX. *Solution of Soap in Alcohol.*

This solution may be employed to ascertain the comparative hardness of waters. With distilled water it may be mixed, without any change ensuing ; but if added to a hard water, it produces a milkiness, more considerable as the water is less pure ; and, from the degree of this milkiness, an experienced eye will derive a tolerable indication of the quality of the water. This effect is owing to the alkali quitting the oil, whenever there is present in a water any substance, for which the alkali has a stronger affinity than it has for oil. Thus all uncombined acids, and all earthy and metallic salts, decompose soap, and

occasion that property in waters which is termed hardness.

XXI. Alcohol.

Alcohol, when mixed with any water, in the proportion of about an equal bulk, precipitates all the salts which it is incapable of dissolving. (See Kirwan on Waters, p. 263.)

XXII. Hydro-Sulphuret of Ammonia.

This and other sulphurets, as well as water saturated with sulphuretted hydrogen, may be employed in detecting lead and arsenic ; with the former of which they give a black, and with the latter a yellowish, precipitate. As lead and arsenic, however, are never found in natural waters, I shall reserve, for another occasion, what I have to say of the application of these tests.

TABLE,

Shewing the Substances that may be expected in Mineral Waters, and the Means of detecting them.

Acids, in general. Infusion of litmus.—Syrup of violets, I.

Acid, boracic. Acetate of lead, XIII. 3.

Acid carbonic. Infusion of litmus, I. 1. 2.—Lime-water, VIII. 1.—Barytic water, IX. 1.

Acid muriatic. Nitrate and acetite of silver, XII.

Acid, nitric. Sulphuric acid, IV. 4.

Acid, phosphoric. Solutions of barytes, XV. 2.

Acid, sulphurous. By its smell,—and destroying the colour of litmus, and of infusion of red roses: by the cessation of the smell a few hours after the addition of the black oxide of manganese.

Acid, sulphuric. Solution of pure barytes, IX. Barytic salts, XV. Acetite of lead, XII.

Alkalies in general. Vegetable colours, II. Muriate of lime, XIX.

Ammonia, by its smell, and tests, II.

Barytes, and its compounds, by sulphuric acid, IV.

Carbonates in general. Effervesce on adding acids.

Earths dissolved by carbonic acid. By a precipitation on boiling ;—by pure alkalies, VII.

Iron dissolved by carbonic acid. Tincture of galls, III. 1. Prussiate of potash, XVI. 1. Succinate of ammonia, XVII.

Iron dissolved by sulphuric acid. Same tests, III. 3. XVI. 2. XVII.

Lime in a pure state. Water saturated with carbonic acid. Blowing air from the lungs. Oxalic acid, VI.

Lime dissolved by carbonic acid. Precipitation on boiling.—Caustic alkalies, VII. Oxalic acid, VI.

Lime dissolved by sulphuric acid. Oxalate of ammonia, VI. Barytic solutions, IX. and XV.

Magnesia dissolved by carbonic acid. Precipitation on boiling,—the precipitate soluble in dilute sulphuric acid.

Magnesia dissolved by other acids. Precipitated by pure ammonia, not by the carbonate, VII. 5. Phosphate of soda, XVII.

Muriates of alkalies. Solutions of silver, XII.

———— of lime. Solutions of silver, XII. Oxalic acid, and oxalate of ammonia, VI.

Sulphates in general. Barytic solutions, IX. and XV.—Acetite of lead, XII.

Sulphate of alumine. Barytic solutions, IX. and XV.—A precipitate by carbonate of ammonia not soluble in acetic acid, but soluble in pure fixed alkalies by boiling. Succinates, XVII. 2.

Sulphate of lime. Barytic solutions, IX. and XV.—Oxalic acid, and oxalates, VI.—A precipitate by alkalies not soluble in dilute sulphuric acid.

Sulphurets of alkalies. Polished metals, X. Smell on adding sulphuric or muriatic acid.—Nitrous acid, V.

Sulphuretted hydrogen gas. By its smell. Infusion of litmus, I. Polished metals, X. Acetite of lead, XIII. 2.*

* The vapour of putrefying animal or vegetable matter dissolved in water, according to Klaproth, Vol. I. p. 590, often gives a deceptive indication of sulphuretted hydrogen.

SECT. II.

Analysis of Waters by Evaporation.

The reader, who may wish for rules for the complete and accurate analysis of mineral waters, will find in almost every elementary work a chapter allotted to this subject. He may also consult Bergman's Physical and Chemical Essays, Vol. I. Essay 2., and Kirwan's Essay on the Analysis of Mineral Waters, London, 1799. As this manual, however, may sometimes be employed as a travelling companion, and may attend the chemist where more bulky works cannot be had, it may be proper to state, briefly, the mode of analysing waters, by the more certain, but still not unobjectionable, mode of evaporation.

Before evaporation, however, the gaseous products of the water must be collected, which may be done by filling with it a large glass bottle, capable of holding about 50 cubical inches, and furnished with a ground stopper and bent tube. The bottle is to be placed, up to its neck, in a tin kettle filled with brine, which must be kept boiling for an hour or two, renewing, by fresh portions of hot water, what is lost by evaporation. The disengaged gas is conveyed, by the bent tube, into a graduated jar, filled with, and inverted in, mercury, where its bulk is to be determined. On the first impression of the heat, however, the water will be expanded, and portions will continue to escape into the graduated jar, till the water has obtained its maximum of temperature. This must be suffered to escape, and its quantity be deducted from that of the water submitted to experiment.

In determining, with precision, the quantity of gas, it is necessary to attend to the state of the barometer and thermometer, and to other circumstances already enumerated, page 57. If a considerable proportion of gas be contained in a mineral water, the most commodious method of receiving it is into a small gazometer.

The gases, most commonly found in mineral waters, are carbonic acid; sulphurated hydrogen; azotic gas; oxygen

gas ; and, in the neighbourhood of volcanoes only *sulphurous acid gas*.

To determine the proportion of the gases, constituting any mixture obtained from a mineral water in the foregoing manner, the following experiments may be made. If the use of re-agents has not detected the presence of sulphuretted hydrogen, and there is reason to believe, from the same evidence, that carbonic acid forms a part of the mixture, let a graduated tube be nearly filled with it over quicksilver. Pass up a small portion of solution of potash, and agitate this in contact with the gas. The amount of the diminution will show how much carbonic acid has been absorbed ; and, if the quantity submitted to experiment, was an aliquot part of the whole gas obtained, it is easy to infer the total quantity present in the water. The unabsorbable residuum consists, most probably, of oxygen and azotic gases ; and the proportion of these two is best learned by the use of Dr Hope's eudiometer, (see page 68.)

If sulphuretted hydrogen be present, along with carbonic acid, the separation of these two is a problem of some difficulty. Mr Kirwan recommends that a graduated glass-vessel, completely filled with the mixture, be removed into a vessel containing nitrous acid. This instantly condenses the sulphuretted hydrogen, but not the carbonic acid gas. I apprehend, however, that a more eligible mode will be found to be, the condensation of the sulphuretted hydrogen by oxy-muriatic acid gas, (obtained from muriatic acid and hyper-oxymuriate of potash ;) adding the latter gas very cautiously, as long as it produces any condensation. Or, perhaps, a better plan of effecting the separation, (which, however, I have not at present an opportunity of trying) will be the following : Half-fill a graduated vial with the mixed carbonic acid and sulphuretted hydrogen gases, and expel the rest of the water by oxy-muriatic acid gas. Let the mouth of the bottle be then closed with a well ground stopper, and let the mixture be kept twenty-four hours. Then withdraw the stopper under water, a quantity of which fluid will immediately rush in. Allow the bottle to stand half-an-hour without agitation. The redundant oxymuriatic acid gas will thus be absorbed ; and very little of the carbonic acid will disappear. Supposing that, to 10 cubic inches of the mixed

gases, 10 inches of oxymuriatic gas have been added, and that, after absorption by standing over water, 5 inches remain : The result of this experiment shews, that the mixture consisted of equal parts of sulphuretted hydrogen and carbonic acid gases.

Whenever this complicated admixture of gases occurs, as in the case of the Harrowgate-water, it is advisable to operate separately on two portions of gas, with the view to determine, by the one, the quantity of carbonic acid and sulphuretted hydrogen ; and that of azote and oxygen by the other. In the latter instance, remove both the absorbable gases by caustic potash ; and examine the remainder in the manner already directed.

Azotic gas sometimes occurs in mineral waters, almost in an unmixed state. When this happens, the gas will be known by the characters already described as belonging to it, page 64. Sulphurous acid gas may be detected by its peculiar smell of burning brimstone, and by its discharging the colour of an infusion of roses, which has been reddened by the smallest quantity of any mineral acid adequate to the effect.

The vessels employed for EVAPORATION, should be of such materials as are not likely to be acted on by the contents of the water. I prefer those of unglazed biscuit ware, made by Messrs. Wedgwoods ; but, as their surface is not perfectly smooth, and the dry mass may adhere so strongly as not to be easily scraped off, the water, when reduced to about one-tenth or less, may be transferred, with any deposit that may have taken place, into a smaller vessel of glass. Here let it be evaporated to dryness.

(a) The dry mass, when collected and accurately weighed, is to be put into a bottle, and alcohol poured on it, to the depth of an inch. After having stood a few hours, and been occasionally shaken, pour the whole on a filter, wash it with a little more alcohol, and dry and weigh the remainder.

(b) To the undissolved residue, add eight times its weight of cold distilled water ; shake the mixture frequently ; and, after some time, filter ; ascertaining the loss of weight.

(c) Boil the residuum, for a quarter of an hour, in

somewhat more than 500 times its weight of water, and afterwards filter.

(*d*) The residue, which must be dried and weighed, is no longer soluble in water or alcohol. If it has a brown colour, denoting the presence of iron, let it be moistened with water, and exposed to the sun's rays for some weeks.

I. The solution in alcohol (*a*) may contain one or all of the following salts: Murates of lime, magnesia, or barytes, or nitrates of the same earths. Sometimes, also, the alcohol may take up a sulphate of iron, in which the metal is highly oxydized, as will appear from its reddish-brown colour.

1. In order to discover the quality and quantity of the ingredients, evaporate to dryness; weigh the residuum; add above half its weight of strong sulphuric acid; and apply a moderate heat. The muriatic or nitric acid will be expelled, and will be known by the colour of their fumes; the former being white, and the latter orange-coloured.

2. To ascertain whether lime or magnesia be the basis of the salts, let the heat be continued till no more fumes arise, and let it then be raised, to expel the excess of sulphuric acid. To the dry mass, add twice its weight of distilled water. This will take up the sulphate of magnesia, and leave the sulphate of lime. The two sulphates may be separately decomposed, by boiling with three or four times their weight of carbonate of potash. The carbonates of lime and magnesia, thus obtained, may be separately dissolved in muriatic acid, and evaporated. The weight of the dry salts will inform us how much of each the alcohol had taken up. Lime and magnesia may also be separated by the use of the phosphate of soda, applied in the manner already described in the preceding Section.

The presence of barytes, which is very rarely to be expected, may be known by a precipitation ensuing on adding sulphuric acid to a portion of the alcoholic solution, which has been diluted with 50 or 60 times its bulk of pure water.

II. The watery solution (*b*) may contain a variety of salts, the accurate separation of which from each other is a problem of considerable difficulty.

1. The analysis of this solution may be attempted by crystallization. For this purpose, let one half be evaporated by a very gentle heat, not exceeding 80° or 90° . Should any crystals appear on the surface of the solution, while hot, in the form of a pellicle, let them be separated and dried on bibulous paper. These are muriate of soda or common salt. The remaining solution, on cooling very gradually, will, perhaps, afford crystals distinguishable by their form and other qualities. When various salts, however, are contained in the same solution, it is extremely difficult to obtain them sufficiently distinct to ascertain their kind.

2. The nature of the saline contents must, therefore, be examined by tests, or re-agents.

The presence of an uncombined alkali will be discovered by the stained papers (p. 311.), and of acids by the tests (p. 309.). The vegetable alkali, or potash, may be distinguished from the mineral, or soda, by saturation with sulphuric acid, and evaporation to dryness; the sulphate of soda being much more soluble than that of potash; or, by super-saturation, with the tartarous acid, which gives a soluble salt with soda, but not with potash. Muriate of platina, also, is an excellent test of potash and its combinations; for, with the smallest portion of this alkali, or any of its salts, it forms a distinct and immediate precipitate; while it is not at all affected by the mineral alkali or its compounds.

If neutral salts be present in the solution, we have to ascertain both the nature of the acid and of the basis. This may be done by attention to the rules already given for the application of tests, which it is unnecessary to repeat in this place.

III. The solution by boiling water contains scarcely any thing besides sulphate of lime.

IV. The residuum (*d*) is to be digested in distilled vinegar, which takes up magnesia and lime, but leaves, undissolved, alumine and highly oxydized iron. Evaporate the solution to dryness. If it contain acetate of lime only, a substance will be obtained which does not attract moisture from the air; if magnesia be present, the mass will deliquesce. To separate the lime from the magnesia, proceed as in I.

The residue, insoluble in acetous acid, may contain alumine, iron, and silex. The two first may be dissolved by muriatic acid, from which the iron may be precipitated first by prussiate of potash, and the alumine afterward by a fixed alkali.



CHAP. II.

EXAMINATION OF MINERALS.

SECT. I.

General Directions.

The chemical analysis of minerals is attended even with greater difficulties than that of natural waters. It would, therefore, be a vain attempt to comprehend, in a concise manual, rules sufficiently minute for the accurate separation of their component principles. On the present occasion, I mean only to offer a few general directions for attaining such a knowledge of the composition of mineral bodies, as may enable the chemical student to refer them to their proper place in a mineral arrangement, and to judge whether or not they may admit of application to the uses of common life. Those who are solicitous to become adepts in the art of mineral analysis, may read attentively the numerous papers of Vauquelin, Hatchett, and other skilful analysts, dispersed through various chemical collections ; and also an admirable work of M. Klaproth, lately translated into English, entitled,

"Analytical Essays towards improving the chemical knowledge of Minerals," 2 vols. 8vo, published by Cadell and Davies, 1801.

The great variety of mineral bodies, which nature presents in the composition of this globe, have been classed by late writers under a few general divisions. They may be arranged under four heads. 1st, EARTHS; 2d, SALTS; 3d, INFLAMMABLE FOSSILS; and, 4th, METALS, and their Ores.

I. EARTHS.—The formation of such a definition of earths as would apply exactly to the bodies defined, and to no others, is attended with considerable difficulty, and indeed has never yet been effected. It would lead me into too long a discussion, to comment, in this place, on the definitions that have been generally offered, and to state the grounds of objection to each of them. Sensible, therefore, that I am unable to present an unexceptionable character of earthy bodies, I shall select such a one as may be sufficient for the less accurate purpose of general distinction.

"The term earth," says Mr. Kirwan, "denotes a tasteless, inodorous, dry, brittle, uninflamable substance, whose specific gravity does not exceed 4.9 (*i. e.* which is never five times heavier than water), and which gives no tinge to borax in fusion." After stating some exceptions to this definition, afforded by the strong taste of certain earths, and the solubility of others, he adds, "Since, however, a line must be drawn between salts and earths, I think it should begin where solution is scarcely perceptible; salts terminating, and earths, in strictness, commencing, where the weight of the water, requisite for the solution, exceeds that of the solvent 1000 times. But, not to depart too widely from the commonly received import of words that are in constant use, substances, that require 100 times their weight of water to dissolve them, and have the other sensible properties of earths, may be so styled in a loose and popular sense."

The simple, or primitive earths, are those which cannot be resolved into more remote principles. Such are lime, argill, magnesia, &c.

The compound earths are composed of two or more primitive earths, united chemically together. Sometimes

the union of an earth with an acid constitutes what is vulgarly called an earth; as in the examples of sulphate of lime, fluato of lime, &c.

II. **SALTS.**—Under this head Mr. Kirwan arranges “all those substances that require less than 100 times their weight of water to dissolve them.” This description, though by no means so amply characteristic of the class of salts as to serve for an exact definition, is sufficient for our present purpose.

III. “By **INFLAMMABLE FOSSILS**,” the same author observes, are to be understood all those of mineral origin, whose principal character is inflammability; a criterion which excludes the diamond and metallic substances though also susceptible of combustion.

IV. **METALLIC SUBSTANCES** are so well characterized by external properties, as not to require any definition.—“Those on which nature has bestowed their proper metallic appearance, or which are alloyed only with other metals or semi-metals, are called *native metals*. But those that are distinguished, as they commonly are in mines, by combination with some other unmetallic substances, are said to be mineralized. The substance that sets them in that state is called a mineralizer, and the compound of both, an ore.” Thus, in the most common ore of copper, this metal is found oxydized, and the oxide combined with sulphur. The copper may be said to be mineralized by oxygen and sulphur, and the compound of the three bodies is called an ore of copper.

SECT. II.

Method of examining a Mineral, the Composition of which is unknown.

A mineral substance, presented to our examination without any previous knowledge of its composition, should first be referred to one of the above four classes, in order that we may attain a general knowledge of its nature, before proceeding to analyze it minutely.

I. To ascertain whether the unknown mineral contain saline matter, let 100 grains, or any other determinate

quantity, in the state of fine powder, be put into a bottle, and shaken up repeatedly with 30 times its weight of water, of the temperature of 120° or 130° . After having stood an hour or two, pour the contents of the bottle on a filtering paper, previously weighed and placed on a funnel. When the water has drained off, dry the powder on a filtering paper, in a heat of about 212° ; and, when dry, let the whole be accurately weighed. If the weight be considerably less than the joint weight of the powder before digestion and the filtering paper, we may infer that some salt has been dissolved, and the decrease of weight will indicate its quantity.

In certain cases it may be advisable to use repeated portions of boiling water, when the salt suspected to be present is difficult of solution.

Should the mineral under examination be proved, by the foregoing experiment, to contain much saline matter, the kind and proportion must next be determined, by rules which will hereafter be laid down.

II. The second class, viz. earthy bodies, are distinguished by their insolubility in water, by their freedom from taste, by their unflammability, and by their specific gravity never reaching 5. If, therefore, a mineral be insoluble in water, when tried in the foregoing manner; if it be not consumed, either wholly or in considerable part, by keeping it, for some time, on a red-hot iron; we may conclude, that it is neither a salt nor an inflammable body.

III. The only remaining class with which it can be confounded are ores of metals, from many of which it may be distinguished merely by poising it in the hand, the ores of metals being always heavier than earths; or, if a doubt should still remain, it may be weighed hydrostatically. The mode of doing this it may be proper to describe; but the principle on which the practice is founded, cannot, with propriety, be explained here. Let the mineral be suspended by a piece of fine hair, silk, or thread, from the scale of a balance, and weighed in the air. Suppose it to weigh 250 grains. Let it next (still suspended to the balance) be immersed in a glass of distilled water, of the temperature of 60° . The scale containing the weight will now preponderate. Add, therefore, to the scale from which the mineral hangs, as many

grain weights as are necessary to restore the equilibrium. Suppose that 50 grains are necessary, then the specific gravity may be learned by dividing the weight in air by the weight lost in water. Thus, in the foregoing case, $250 \div 50 = 5$; or, a substance which should lose weight in water, according to the above proportion, would be five times heavier than water. It must, therefore, contain some metal, though probably in no great quantity. —Any mineral, which, when weighed in the above manner, proves to be 5, 6, 7, or more, times heavier than water, may, therefore, be inferred to contain a metal, and may be referred to the class of ores.

IV. Inflammable substances are distinguished by their burning away, either entirely or in considerable part, on a red-hot iron; and by their detonating, when mixed with powdered nitre, and thrown into a red-hot-crucible. Certain ores of metals, however, which contain a considerable proportion of inflammable matter, answer to this test, but may be distinguished from purely inflammable substances by their greater specific gravity.

I shall now proceed to offer a few general rules for the more accurate examination of substances of each of the above classes; without, however, pretending to comprehend, in this manual, a code of directions, sufficiently minute to enable any one to perform a complete analysis.

SECT. III.

Examination of Salts.

1. A solution of saline matter, obtained in the foregoing manner (see page 334.), may be slowly evaporated, and left to cool gradually. When cold, crystals will probably appear, which a chemist, acquainted with the form of salts, will easily recognize. But, as several different salts may be present in the same solution, and may not crystallize in a sufficiently distinct shape, it may be necessary to have recourse to the evidence of tests.

2. Let the salt, in the first place, be referred to one of the following orders:

(a) *Acids, or salts with excess of acid.* These are known by their effect on blue vegetable colours. The particular species of acid may be discovered by the tests described, page 324.

(b) *Alkalies.* These are characterized by their effect on vegetable colours, and by the other properties enumerated, page 86.

(c) *Salts with metallic bases.* These afford a very copious precipitate when mixed with a solution of prussiate of potash. To ascertain the species of metal, precipitate the whole by prussiate of potash, calcine the precipitate, and proceed according to the rules which will hereafter be given for separating metals from each other.

(d) *Salts with earthy bases.* If a solution of salt, in which prussiate of potash occasions no precipitation, afford a precipitate, on adding pure or carbonated potash, we may infer, that a compound of an acid, with some one of the earths, is present in the solution. Or if, after prussiate of potash has ceased to throw down a sediment, the above-mentioned alkali precipitates a farther portion, we may infer that both earthy and metallic salts are contained in the solution. In the first case, add the alkaline solution, and, when it has ceased to produce any effect, let the sediment subside, decant the supernatant liquor, and wash and dry the precipitate. The earths may be examined, according to the rules that will be given in the following article. In the second case, prussiate of potash must be added, as long as it precipitates any thing, and the liquor must be decanted from the sediment, which is to be washed with distilled water, adding the washings to what has been poured off. The decanted solution must next be mixed with the alkaline one, and the precipitated earths reserved for experiment. By this last process, earths and metals may be separated from each other.

(e) *Neutral salts with alkaline bases.* These salts are not precipitated either by prussiate or carbonate of potash. It may happen, however, that salts of this class may be contained in a solution, along with metallic or earthy ones. In this case the analysis becomes difficult; because the alkali, that is added to precipitate the two

last, renders it difficult to ascertain whether the neutral salts are owing to this addition, or were originally present. I am not aware of any method of obviating this difficulty, except the following: Let the metals be precipitated by prussiate of ammonia, and the earths by carbonate of ammonia, in a temperature of 180° or upwards, in order to ensure the decomposition of magnesian salts, which this carbonate does not effect in the cold. Separate the liquor by filtration, and boil it to dryness. Then expose the dry mass to such a heat as is sufficient to expel the ammoniacal salts.* Those with bases of fixed alkali will remain unvolatilized. By this process, indeed, it will be impossible to ascertain whether ammoniacal salts were originally present; but this may be learned by adding to the salt under examination, before its solution in water, some pure potash, which, if ammonia be contained in the salt, will produce the peculiar smell of that alkali. The vegetable and mineral alkalies may be distinguished by adding to the solution a little tartarous acid, which precipitates the former but not the latter; or by muriate of platina, which acts only on the vegetable alkali.

Having ascertained the basis of the salt, the acid will easily be discriminated. Muriated barytes will indicate sulphuric acid; nitrate of silver the muriatic; and salts, containing nitric acid, may be known by a detonation ensuing on projecting them, mixed with powdered charcoal, into a red-hot crucible.

SECT. IV.

Examination of Earths and Stones.

When a mineral, the composition of which we are desirous to discover, resists the action of water, and possesses characters that rank it among earthy bodies, the next object of inquiry is the nature of the earths that

* This application of heat will drive off, also, any excess of the ammoniacal carbonate, which might have retained in solution either yttria, glucine, or zircon. The alkaline salts may be separated from these earths, by boiling the mixture in water, filtering, and evaporating.

enter into its composition; in other words, how many of the simple earths, and which of them it may contain.—Of these earths, (viz. silex, alumine, magnesia, lime, strontites, barytes, zircon, glucine, and yttria) one or more may be expected in the composition of a mineral beside a small proportion of metals, to which the colour of the stone is owing. In general, however, it is not usual to find more than four of the simple earths in one mineral. The newly discovered earths, zircon, glucine, and yttria, occur very rarely.

A stone, which is intended for chemical examination, should be finely powdered, and care should be taken that the mortar is of harder materials than the stone, otherwise it will be liable to abrasion, and uncertainty will be occasioned in the result of the process. A longer or shorter time is required, according to the texture of the stone. Of the harder gems, 100 grains require two or three hours trituration. For soft stones, a mortar of Wedgwood's ware is sufficient; but, for very hard minerals, one of agate, or hard steel, is required; and the stone should be weighed both before and after pulverization, that the addition, if any, may be ascertained and allowed for. Gems, and stones of equal hardness, gain generally from 10 to 13 per cent. When a stone is extremely difficult to be reduced to powder, it may sometimes be necessary to make it red-hot, and while in this state, to plunge it into cold water. By this process it becomes brittle, and is afterwards easily pulverized. But this treatment is not always effectual; for Klaproth found the hardness of corundum not at all diminished by igniting it, and quenching in cold water.

The chemical agents, employed in the analysis of stones, should be of the greatest possible purity. To obtain them in this state, directions have been given in the former part of this work.

In treating of the analysis of stones, it may be proper to divide them, 1st, into such as are soluble, either wholly or in part, and with effervescence, in nitric or muriatic acids, diluted with five or six parts of water; and, 2dly, into such as do not dissolve in these acids.

1. *Earths or stones, soluble with effervescence, in diluted nitric or sulphuric acids.**

* The sulphuric acid is chiefly eligible for stones of the magnesian genus.

(A.) If it be found, on trial, that the mineral under examination effervesces with either of these acids, let a given weight, finely powdered, be digested with one of them diluted in the above proportion, in a gentle heat for two or three hours. Ascertain the loss of weight, in the manner pointed out, page 334, and filter the solution, reserving the insoluble portion.

(B.) The solution, when effected, may contain lime, magnesia, alumine, barytes, or strontites. To ascertain the presence of the two last, dilute an aliquot part of the solution with 20 times its bulk of water, and add a little sulphuric acid, or, in preference, solution of sulphate of soda. Should a white precipitate fall down, we may infer the presence of barytes, of strontites, or of both.

(C.) To ascertain which of these earths, (viz. barytes or strontites) is present, or, if both are contained in the solution, to separate them from each other, add sulphate of soda till the precipitate ceases; decant the supernatant liquid; wash the sediment on a filter, and dry it.—Then digest it, with four times its weight of pure carbonate of potash, and a sufficient quantity of water, in a gentle heat, during two or three hours. A double exchange of principles will ensue, and we shall obtain a carbonate of barytes or strontites, or a mixture of both. Pour on these, nitric acid, of the specific gravity 1.4, diluted with an equal weight of distilled water. This will dissolve the strontites, but not the barytes. To determine whether any strontites has been taken up by the acid, evaporate the solution to dryness, and dissolve the dry mass in alcohol. This alcoholic solution, if it contain nitrate of strontites, will burn with a deep blood-red flame.

Barytes and strontites may also be separated from each other in the following manner: To a saturated solution of the two earths in an acid, add prussiate of potash, which, if pure, will occasion no immediate precipitation; but, after some time, small and insoluble crystals will form on the surface of the jar. These are the prussiated barytes, which may be changed into the carbonate by a red heat, continued, with the access of air, till the black colour disappears. The strontites may be afterward separated from the solution by carbonate of potash.

A third method of separating strontites from barytes

is founded on the stronger affinity of barytes, than of the former earth, for acids. Hence if the two earths be present in the same solution, add a solution of pure barytes (see page 90,) till the precipitation ceases. The barytes will seize the acid, and will throw down the strontites. The strontitic solution, in this case, should have no excess of acid, which would prevent the action of the barytic earth.*

(D.) The solution (B.), after the addition of sulphate of soda, may contain lime, magnesia, alumine, and some metallic oxides. To separate the oxides, add prussiate of potash, till its effect ceases, and filter the solution, reserving the precipitate for future experiments.

(E.) When lime, magnesia, and alumine, are contained in the same solution, proceed as follows:

(a.) Precipitate the solution, previously made hot, by carbonate of potash; wash the precipitate well, and dry it. It will consist of carbonates of lime, magnesia, and alumine. (b.) The alumine may be separated, by digestion with a solution of pure potash, which will dissolve the alumine but not the other earths. (c.) To this solution of alumine, add diluted muriatic acid, till the precipitate ceases; decant the supernatant liquor; wash the precipitate well with distilled water, and dry it. Then expose it to a low red-heat, in a crucible, and weigh it, which will give the proportion of alumine.

(F.) Magnesia and lime may be separated by the following process: Evaporate the solution, in nitric or muriatic acid, to dryness. Weigh the dry mass, and pour on it, in a glass evaporating dish, † more than its own weight of strong sulphuric acid. Apply a sand heat till the acid ceases to rise, and then raise the heat, so as to expel the excess of sulphuric acid. Weigh the dry mass, and digest it in twice its weight of cold distilled water. —This will dissolve the sulphate of magnesia, and will leave the sulphate of lime, which must be put on a filter, washed with a little more water, and dried in a low red

* Klaproth separates barytes from strontites by evaporating the solution of both in an acid. The barytic salt, being less soluble, separates first; and the strontitic is contained in the last portions.

† The bottom of a broken Florence flask answers this purpose extremely well, and bears, without breaking, the heat necessary to expel the sulphuric acid.

heat. To estimate the quantity of lime, deduct, from the weight of the sulphate, 59 per cent. According to Klaproth (vol. i. p. 76, n.), crystallized sulphate of lime contains one-third of earth.

If the lime be only in very small proportion to the magnesia, the two sulphates may be separated by evaporation, that of lime crystallizing first.

From Klaproth's experiments, 100 parts of sulphuric acid, spec. gr. 1850, when saturated with lime, give 160 of sulphate. To saturate 100 parts of this acid, 55 parts of pure lime are required, or 100 of carbonate of lime.

The magnesia is next to be precipitated from the sulphate by the carbonate of potash, in a heat approaching 212° ; and the precipitate, after being well washed, must be dried, and calcined for an hour. Its weight, after calcination, will give the quantity of magnesia contained in the stone.

(G.) If magnesia and alumine only be contained in a solution (the absence of lime being indicated by the non-appearance of a precipitate, on adding oxalate of ammonia,) the two earths may be separated by adding, to the cold solution, the carbonate of ammonia. This will separate the alumine, which may be collected, washed, and dried. To ascertain that a complete separation of the two earths has been accomplished, the process may be followed, recommended by Klaproth, vol. i. p. 418. The magnesia, remaining in solution, may be precipitated by carbonate of potash; heat being applied, to expel the excess of carbonic acid.

Magnesia and alumine may, also, be separated by succinate of soda, which precipitates the latter earth only. (See Sect. 1. xvii. of the Chapter on Mineral Waters.)

When the solution of magnesia, of alumine, or of both, contains a small proportion of iron, this may be separated from either or both of the earths by evaporating to dryness, calcining the residue, during one hour, in a low red heat, and dissolving again in dilute nitric acid, which does not take up iron when thus oxydized.

(H.) The insoluble residue (A.) may contain alumine, silix, and oxides, of metals, so highly charged with oxygen as to resist the action of nitric and muriatic acids.

(a.) Add concentrated sulphuric acid, with a small quantity of potash, and evaporate the mixture to dry-

ness, in the vessel described in the note, p. 340. On the dry mass pour a fresh portion of the acid; boil again to dryness, and let this be done, repeatedly, three or four times. By this operation, the alumine will be converted into a sulphate of alumine and potash, which will be easily soluble in warm water; and, from the solution, crystals of alum will shoot on evaporation.* Let the sulphate of alumine be washed off, and the insoluble part be collected and dried. The alumine may be precipitated by carbonate of potash; washed, dried, and ignited; and its weight ascertained.

During the evaporation of a solution of alumine, which has been separated from silex, portions of the latter earth continue to fall, even to the last. (See Klaproth, i. p. 66. and 75.) These must be collected, and washed with warm water; the collected earth added to the portion (b.) and the washings to the solution (a.)

Alumine may be separated from oxide of iron by a solution of pure potash.

From whatever acid alumine is precipitated by fixed alkali, it is apt to retain a small portion of the precipitant. To ascertain the true quantity of this earth, it must, therefore, be redissolved in acetous acid, again precipitated by solution of pure ammonia, dried, and ignited.

(b.) The oxides (generally of iron only) may be separated from the silex in the following manner:—Let the insoluble part (a) be heated in a crucible with a little wax. This will render the oxides soluble in diluted sulphuric acid, and the silex will be left pure and white. Let it be washed, ignited, and its weight ascertained.

2. *Stones insoluble in diluted nitric and muriatic acids.*

These stones must be reduced to powder, observing the cautions given in page 338.

(L.) Let 100 grains, or any other determinate quantity, be mixed with three times their weight of pure and dry potash. Put the whole into a crucible of pure silver, set in one of earthen ware of a larger size, the interstice be-

* Mr. Klaproth procured crystals of alum from one fourth of a grain of alumine. The quantity of alumine he estimates at one tenth the weight of the crystallized alum which is obtained.

ing filled with sand; and add a little water.* The crucible, covered with a lid, must then be gradually heated; and, as the materials swell and would boil over, they are to be stirred constantly with a rod or spatula of silver. When the moisture is dissipated, and the mass has become quite dry, raise the heat, as far as can be done without melting the crucible, if of silver, and continue the heat during half an hour, or an hour.

The phenomena that occur during this operation indicate, in some degree, the nature of the mineral under examination. If the mixture undergo a perfectly liquid fusion, we may presume that the stone contains much silicious earth; if it remain pasty and opaque, the other earths are to be suspected; and, lastly, if it have the form of a dry powder, the bulk of which has considerably increased, it is a sign of the predominance of alumine.

If the fused mass have a dark green or brownish colour, the presence of oxide of iron is announced; a bright green indicates manganese, especially if the colour be imparted to water; and a yellowish green the oxide of chrome.

(a) The disintegration of stones, consisting chiefly of alumine, is not easily effected, however, by means of potash. Mr. Chenevix found (Phil. Trans. 1802,) that minerals of this class are much more completely decomposed by fusion with calcined borax. One part of the mineral to be examined, reduced to very fine powder, and mingled with $2\frac{1}{2}$ or 3 times its weight of glass of borax (see ch. xvi.) is to be exposed to a strong heat for two hours in a crucible of platina, set in a larger earthen one, and surrounded by sand. The crucible, and its contents, which adhere very strongly to it, are then to be digested, for some hours, with muriatic acid, by which a perfect solution will be accomplished. The whole of the earthy part is then to be precipitated by sub-carbonate of ammonia; and the precipitate, after being well washed, is to be redissolved in muriatic acid. By this means, the borax is

* Klaproth effected the disintegration of corundum (which resisted eleven successive fusions with alkali) by adding to the powdered stone, in a crucible, a solution of pure potash, boiling to dryness, and pushing the mixture to fusion. The alkali must be perfectly caustic, and must have been purified by alcohol, as recommended page 86. A platina crucible is unfit for this purpose, as it is corroded by pure alkalies.

separated. The analysis is afterwards to be conducted nearly in the manner which will presently be described.

(K) The crucible, being removed from the fire, is to be well cleaned on the outside, and set, with its contents, in a porcelain or glass vessel, filled with hot water, which is to be stirred and renewed, occasionally, till the whole mass is detached. The water dissolves a considerable part of the compound of alumine and silice with potash, and even the whole, if added in sufficient quantity. During cooling, a sediment occasionally forms, in the filtered liquor, of a brownish colour, which is oxide of manganese. (See Klaproth, I. 345, *b*.)

(L) To the solution (K), and the mass that has resisted solution, in the same vessel, add muriatic acid. The first portions of acid will throw down a flocculent sediment, which consists of the earths that were held dissolved by the alkali. Then an effervescence ensues; and a precipitate occurs, which is no sooner formed than it is dissolved. Lastly, the portion that resisted the action of water is taken up, silently if it contain alumine, and with effervescence if it be calcareous earth.

(M) From the phenomena attending the action of muriatic acid, some indications may be derived. If the solution assume a purplish red colour, it is a sign of oxide of manganese; an orange red shows iron; and a gold yellow colour betokens chrome. Freedom from colour proves, that the stone contains no metallic ingredients.

(N) When the solution is complete, it is to be evaporated to dryness, in a glass vessel; but, if any thing resist solution, it must be heated, as before, (I,) with potash. When the liquor approaches to dryness, it assumes the form of a jelly, and must then be diligently stirred till quite dry.

(O) (a) Let the dry mass be digested, in a gentle heat, with three or four pints, or even more, of distilled water, and filtered. (b) Wash what remains on the filter, repeatedly, till the washing ceases to precipitate the nitrate of silver, and add the washings to the filtered liquor. (c) Let the residue on the filter be dried and ignited in a crucible. Its weight shows the quantity of silice. If pure, it should be perfectly white, but if it has any colour, an admixture of some metallic oxide is indicated. From

this it may be purified by digestion in muriatic acid, and may again be washed, ignited, and weighed.

(P) The solution (O), which, owing to the addition of the washings, will have considerable bulk, is next to be evaporated, till less than a pint remains; carbonate of potash must then be added, and the liquor must be heated during a few minutes. Let the precipitate, occasioned by the alkali, subside; decant the liquor from above it, and wash the sediment, repeatedly, with warm water. Let it then be put on a filter and dried.

(Q) The dried powder may contain alumine, lime, magnesia, barytes, or strontites; besides metallic oxides, which may be separated from each other by the rules already given.

(R) It may be proper to examine the solution (P) after the addition of carbonate of potash, in order to discover whether any and what acid was contained in the stone.

(a) For this purpose, let the excess of alkali be neutralized by muriatic acid, and the liquor filtered.

(b) Add, to a little of this liquor, a solution of muriated barytes. Should a copious precipitate ensue, which is insoluble in dilute muriatic acid, the presence of sulphuric acid is detected. And if much barytes, strontites, or lime, has been found in the precipitate (Q), we may infer the presence of a sulphate of one of these three earths.

(c) If, on mixing the liquid (a) with the solution of muriated barytes, a precipitate ensues which is soluble, without effervescence, in muriatic acid, the phosphoric acid may be known to be present; and, if lime be also found, the phosphate of lime is indicated.

(d) To a portion of the liquor (a) add a solution of muriate of lime till the precipitate, if any, ceases. Collect this precipitate, wash it, dry it, and pour on it a little sulphuric acid. Should acid fumes arise, the fluoric acid may be suspected. To ascertain its presence decisively, distil a portion of the precipitate with half its weight of sulphuric acid. The fluoric acid will be known by its effects on the retort, and by the properties described, chap. xvii.

(S) The method of separating, from each other, the metallic oxides, usually found as the colouring ingredients of stones, remains to be accomplished.

(a) Let the precipitate, by the prussiate of potash, (D.)

be exposed to a red heat, by which the prussic acid will be decomposed. The oxides thus obtained, if insoluble in dilute nitric or muriatic acid, will be rendered soluble, by again calcining them with the addition of a little wax or oil.

(b) Or the process may be varied by omitting the precipitation by prussiate of potash, and proceeding as directed, E. p. 340.

The oxides will remain mixed with the magnesia and lime, and, after the addition of sulphuric acid, will be held in solution by that acid, along with magnesia only.

In both cases the same method of proceeding may be adopted; such variation only being necessary, as is occasioned by the presence of magnesia in the latter.

(c) To the solution (*a* or *b*) containing several metallic oxides dissolved by an acid, add a solution of crystallized carbonate of potash, as long as any precipitation ensues. This will separate the oxides of iron, chrome, and nickel; but the oxide of manganese and the magnesia, if any be present, will remain dissolved.

If a small quantity of oxide of manganese be suspected in an oxide of iron, it may be detected by mixing the oxide with nitre, and throwing the mixture into a red-hot crucible. Manganese will be indicated by an amethystine red tinge in the solution of this nitre.

(d) Magnesia and oxide of manganese may be separated by adding to their solution (*c*) the hydro-sulphuret of potash, (see ch. iii, sect. 6.) which will throw down the manganese, but not the magnesia. The precipitated manganese must be calcined with the access of air and weighed. The magnesia may afterward be separated by solution of pure potash; and, when precipitated, must be washed, dried, and calcined.

(e) The oxide of chrome may be separated from those of iron and nickel, by repeatedly boiling the three, to dryness, with nitric acid. This will acidify the chrome, and will render it soluble in pure potash, which does not take up the other oxides. From this combination with potash the chromic oxide may be detached, by adding muriatic acid and evaporating the liquor till it assumes a green colour. Then, on adding a solution of pure potash, the oxide of chrome will fall down, because the quantity of oxygen, required for its acidification, has been separated by the muriatic acid.

(f) The oxides of iron and nickel are next to be dissolved in muriatic acid; and to the solution pure liquid ammonia is to be added, till there is an evident excess of it. The oxide of iron will be precipitated, and must be dried and weighed. If highly oxydized, it must, before weighing, be calcined with wax, in a crucible. The oxide of nickel remains dissolved by the excess of ammonia, to which it imparts a blue colour. It may be separated by evaporating the solution to dryness and dissolving the salt.*

The analysis of the stone is now completed, and its accuracy may be judged by the correspondence of the weight of the component parts with that of the stone originally submitted to experiment.

It may be proper to observe, that certain stones, which are not soluble in diluted nitric and muriatic acids, may be decomposed by an easier process than that described (A). Among these are the compounds of barytes, strontites, and lime, with acids, chiefly with the sulphuric, fluoric, and phosphoric. The sulphates of barytes, strontites, and lime; the fluuate of lime; and the phosphate of lime; are all found native in the earth, and, except the last, are all insoluble in the above-mentioned acids. They may be known generally by their external characters. The compounds of barytes and strontites have a specific gravity greater than that of other earths, but inferior to that of metallic ores. They have, frequently, a regular or crystallized form, are more or less transparent, have some lustre, and their hardness is such as does not prevent their yielding to the knife. The combinations of lime, with the above-mentioned acids, are distinguished by similar characters, except that they are much less heavy. To the mineralogist the outward form and characters of these stones are sufficient indications of their composition.

Instead of the fusion with alkali, an easier process may be recommended. Let the mineral under examination be reduced to powder, and be digested, in nearly a boiling heat, during one or two hours, with three or four times its weight of carbonate of potash, and a sufficient quan-

* For an example of the separation of nickel from iron, see Klaproth, Vol. I. p. 422; where, also, and page 428, is an instance of the testing of nickel for copper.

tity of distilled water. The acid, united with the earth, will quit it and pass to the potash, while the carbonic acid will leave the alkali and combine with the earth. We shall obtain, therefore, a compound of the acid of the stone with potash, which will remain in solution, while the carbonated earths will form an insoluble precipitate. The solution may be assayed to discover the nature of the acid, according to the formula (1); and the earths may be separated from each other by the processes (B), &c.

(T.) In the foregoing rules for analysis I have omitted the mode of detecting and separating *glucine*, because this earth is of very rare occurrence. When alumine and glucine are present in a mineral, they may be separated from the precipitate (E. a) by pure potash, which dissolves both these earths. A sufficient quantity of acid is then to be added to saturate the alkali; and carbonate of ammonia is to be poured in till a considerable excess of this carbonate is manifested by the smell. The alumine is thus separated, but the glucine, being soluble in the carbonate of ammonia, remains dissolved, and may be precipitated by boiling the solution.

(U.) Zircon may be separated from alumine, by boiling the mixed earths with pure soda, which acts only on the latter. (Klaproth, Vol. II. p. 213.) From an acid solution containing both earths, the alumine is thrown down by a saturated carbonate of potash, which, when added in excess, re-dissolves the zircon. Glucine and zircon, or glucine and yttria, may be separated, when mixed together in solution, by prussiate of potash, which has no action on glucine, but precipitates the two other earths.

(V.) To separate yttria from alumine, precipitate them from a solution containing both earths, by pure ammonia; boil the precipitate in a solution of pure soda, which chiefly takes up alumine; neutralize the solution with sulphuric acid, and add carbonate of soda to the solution, brought to the boiling temperature. A precipitate will ensue, consisting of alumine with some yttria. To separate the latter earth, dissolve in muriatic acid, and add an excess of carbonate of ammonia, which takes up only the yttria. To ensure, still farther, the purity of the alumine, dissolve the residue in an excess of sulphuric

acid: add a small portion of sulphate of potash, and crystallize the solution. The crystals of alum, that are produced, contain 1-10th of alumine.

(W.) The presence of potash (which has lately been discovered in some stones) may be detected by boiling the powdered mineral, repeatedly, to dryness, with strong sulphuric acid. Wash the dry mass with water, add a little excess of acid, and evaporate the solution to a smaller bulk. If crystals of alum should appear, it is a decisive proof of potash, because this salt can never be obtained, in a crystallized form, without the addition of the vegetable alkali.

But, since a mineral may contain potash, and little or no alumine, in which case no crystals of alum will appear, it may be necessary, in the latter case, to add a little alumine along with the sulphuric acid. Or the stone may be so hard as to resist the action of sulphuric acid; and it will then be necessary to fuse it (in the manner directed, I) with soda, which has also a solvent power over alumine and silex. The fused mass is to be dissolved in water, and supersaturated with sulphuric acid. Evaporate to dryness, redissolve in water; and filter, to separate the silex. Evaporate the solution, which will first afford crystals of sulphate of soda, and afterwards of sulphate of potash, should the latter alkali be contained in the mineral.

Klaproth first discovered potash in leucite, on summing up the results of its analysis, which gave a considerable loss of weight. By boiling the stone with diluted muriatic acid, and evaporation, he obtained crystals of muriate of potash. Another proof of the presence of potash was, that, when sulphuric acid was boiled with it, the solution gave crystals of alum, to which potash is essential. He also boiled the stone with muriatic acid, and, after dissolving the muriate of alumine by alcohol, muriate of potash remained. The volcanic leucite contained less potash than other kinds. The same alkali he also detected, afterwards, in lepidolite.

The potash, contained in sulphate of alumine, may be separated from the earth by adding a solution of pure barytes as long as any precipitation is produced. The alumine and sulphate of barytes will fall down together, and the potash will remain in solution. Its presence may

be known by the tests, enumerated in the 1st chapter of Part II. (Sec. 2.)

X. Soda may be detected in a mineral by the following experiments:—Let the powdered stone be treated with sulphuric acid, as in U; wash off the solution, and add pure ammonia till the precipitation ceases: Then filter, evaporate the solution to dryness, and raise the heat so as to expel the sulphate of ammonia. The sulphate of soda will remain, and may be known by the characters, page 134.

Soda was first found, by Klaproth, in chrysolite, in the large proportion of 36 per cent. This analysis was confirmed by Vauquelin, whose mode of separating it, happens to be the one I now recommend. Both the fixed alkalies have since been frequently discovered in native minerals; viz. soda in basalt (Klaproth, II, 195); in pitchstone (207); and in kling-stone, amounting to 8 per cent. (182). The same skilful analyst has found potash in Hungarian pearl-stone (263); and, accompanied by soda, in pumice (20).

A new method has lately been proposed by Mr. Davy, (Phil. Trans. 1805, or Nich. Journ. xiii. 86.) for analyzing stones, containing either of the fixed alkalies; viz. by means of the boracic acid. The process is sufficiently simple. One hundred grains of the stone to be examined must be fused, during half an hour, at a strong red heat, with 200 grains of boracic acid. An ounce and half of nitric acid, diluted with 7 or 8 parts of water, must be digested on the mass, till the whole has been decomposed. The fluid must be evaporated, till its quantity is reduced to an ounce and half, or two ounces.

If the stone contain silex, this earth will be separated in the process of solution and evaporation. It must be collected on a filter, and washed well with water, till the boracic acid, and all the saline matter are separated. The fluid, and all that has passed through the filter, must be evaporated to about half a pint; then saturated with carbonate of ammonia, and boiled with an excess of that salt, till all the materials that it contains, capable of being precipitated, have fallen to the bottom of the vessel. The solution must then be passed through a filter, which retains the earths and metallic oxides. It must then be mixed with nitric acid, till it tastes strongly sour, and evaporated till the boracic acid appears free. The fluid must

next be evaporated to dryness; when by exposure to a heat of 450° Fahrenheit, the nitrate of ammonia will be decomposed, and the nitrate of potash or soda will remain in the vessel.

The remaining earths and metallic oxides are separated from each other by common processes; viz. alumine by solution of potash; lime by sulphuric acid; oxide of iron by succinate of ammonia; oxide of manganese by hydro-sulphuret of potash; and magnesia by pure soda.

2. Table of Substances which may be expected in Earths and Stones, and the means of separating them from each other.

Acid, fluoric, R. d.

phosphoric, R. c.

sulphuric, R. b.

Alumine from lime and magnesia, E.

its quantity, E. c.

from magnesia, G.

from silex, H. a.

metallic oxides, H. a.

glucine, T.

Barytes and Strontites from other earths, B.

from strontites, C.

Chrome from manganese, &c. S. c.

iron and nickel, S. e.

Earths from oxides, D.

Glucine from alumine, T.

Iron from manganese, S. e.

nickel, S. f.

Lime from magnesia, F.

alumine, E. b.

its quantity, F.

Magnesia from lime, F.

alumine, G.

manganese, S. d.

its quantity, F.

Manganese, indications of, M.

from iron, chrome, and nickel, S. c.

from magnesia, S. d.

Nickel from manganese, S. e.

iron, S. f.

Oxides, metallic, from earths, D.

Potash from earths and oxides, W.

Silex from alumine, H. a.
earths in general, O. c.
oxides, H. b.

Soda from earths and oxides, X.

Strontites, see *Barytes*.

Yttria from alumine, &c. V.

Zircon from alumine, &c. U.

SECT. V.

Analysis of Inflammable Fossils.

The exact analysis of inflammable fossils is seldom necessary in directing the most beneficial application of them. It may be proper, however, to offer a few general rules for judging of their purity.

1. *Sulphur*. Sulphur should be entirely volatilized by distillation in a glass retort. If any thing remain fixed, it must be considered as an impurity, and may be examined by the preceding rules.

Sulphur, also, should be totally dissolved by boiling with solution of pure potash, and may be separated from its impurities by this alkali.

Impure sulphur, consumed by burning in a small crucible, leaves a residue of oxide of iron and silex.

II. *Coals.*

1. The proportion of bituminous matter in coal may be learnt by distillation, in an earthen retort, and collecting their product.

2. The proportion of earthy or metallic ingredients may be found, by burning the coal, with access of air, on a red-hot iron. What remains unconsumed must be considered as an impurity, and may be analyzed by the foregoing rules.

3. The proportion of carbon may be ascertained by observing the quantity of nitrate of potash which a given weight of the coal is capable of decomposing. For this

purpose, let 500 grains, or more, of perfectly pure nitre be melted in a crucible, and, when red-hot, let the coal to be examined, reduced to a coarse powder, be projected on the nitre, by small portions at once, not exceeding one or two grains. Immediately, when the flame, occasioned by one projection, has ceased, let another be made, and so on till the effect ceases. The proportion of carbon in the coal is directly proportionate to the quantity required to alkalize the nitre. Thus, since 12.709 of carbon are required to alkalize 100 of nitre, it will be easy to deduce the quantity of carbon, in a given weight of coal, from the quantity of nitre which it is capable of decomposing. This method, however, is liable to several objections, which its inventor, Mr. Kirwan, seems fully aware of. See his *Elements of Mineralogy*, Vol. II. p. 514.

Plumbago, or *black lead*, is another inflammable substance, which it may sometimes be highly useful to be able to identify, and to judge of its purity.—When projected on red-hot nitre, it should detonate; and, on dissolving the decomposed nitre, an oxide of iron should remain, amounting to one-tenth the weight of the plumbago. Any mineral, therefore, that answers to these characters, and leaves a shining trace on paper, like that of the black-lead pencils, is plumbago.

SECT. VI.

Analysis of Metallic Ores.

The class of metals comprehends so great a number of individuals, that it is almost impossible to offer a comprehensive formula for the analysis of ores. Ores of the same metal, also, as the mineralizing ingredients vary, require very different treatment. Yet some general directions are absolutely necessary, to enable the naturalist to judge of the composition of bodies of this class.

The ores of metals may be analyzed in two modes, in the humid and the dry way. The first is effected with the aid of acids and of other liquid agents, and may often be accomplished by persons who are prevented, by the want of furnaces, and other necessary apparatus, from at-

tempting the second. If sulphur, however, be present in an ore, which may be generally known by its external characters, as described by mineralogical writers, it impedes the action of acids; and should be separated, either by roasting the ore on a muffle, or by projecting it, mixed with twice or thrice its weight of nitre, into a red-hot crucible, washing off the alkali afterwards by hot water.

It is hardly possible to employ a solvent, capable of taking up all the metals. Thus, the nitric acid does not act on gold or platina; and the nitro-muriatic, which dissolves these metals, has no solvent action on silver. It will be necessary, therefore, to vary the solvent according to the nature of the ore under examination.

1. For ores of gold and platina, the nitro-muriatic acid is the most proper solvent. A given weight of the ore may be digested with this acid, as long as it extracts any thing. The solution may be evaporated to dryness, in order to expel the excess of acid, and dissolved in water. The addition of a solution of tin and muriatic acid will shew the presence of gold by a purple precipitate; and platina will be indicated by a precipitate, on adding a solution of muriate of ammonia. When gold and platina are both contained in the same solution, they may be separated from each other by the last-mentioned solution, which throws down the platina but not the gold. In this way platina may be detached, also, from other metals.

When gold is contained in a solution, along with several other metals, it may be separated from most of them by adding a dilute solution of sulphate of iron. The only metals, which this salt precipitates, are gold, palladium, silver, and mercury.

2. For extracting silver from its ores, the nitric acid is the most proper solvent. Nitric acid, however, does not act on horn-silver ore, which must be decomposed by carbonate of soda. The silver may be precipitated from nitric acid by muriate of soda (common salt.) Every hundred parts of the precipitate contains 75 of silver. But, as lead may be present in the solution, and this metal is also precipitated by muriate of soda, it may be proper to immerse in the solution (which should not have any excess of acid) a polished plate of copper. This will precipitate the silver, if present, in a metallic form. The

muriate of silver is also soluble in liquid ammonia, which that of lead is not. For examples of the analysis of silver ores, the reader may consult Klaproth, I. p. 554, &c.

3. *Copper ores* may be analyzed by boiling them with five times their weight of concentrated sulphuric acid, till a dry mass is obtained, from which water will extract the sulphate of copper. This salt is to be decomposed by a polished plate of iron, immersed in a dilute solution of it. The copper will be precipitated in a metallic state, and may be scraped off and weighed.

If silver be suspected along with copper, nitrous acid must be employed as the solvent; and a plate of polished copper will detect the silver.

The reader, who engages in the analysis of copper ores, will derive much advantage from the examples to be found in Klaproth's Essays, Vol. I. p. 54, 541, &c.; and also from Mr. Chenevix's paper on the analysis of arseniates of copper and iron, Phil. Trans. 1801; Nicholson's Journal, 8vo. vol. I.; or Phil. Mag.

4. *Iron ores* may be dissolved in dilute muriatic acid, or, if the metal be too highly oxydized to be dissolved by this acid, they must be previously mixed with one-eighth of their weight of powdered charcoal, and calcined in a crucible for one hour. The iron is thus rendered soluble.

The solution must then be diluted with 10 or 12 times its quantity of water, previously well boiled, to expel the air, and must be preserved in a well-stopped glass bottle for six or eight days. The phosphate of iron will, within that time, be precipitated, if any be present, and the liquor must be decanted off.

The solution may contain the oxides of iron, manganese, and zinc. It may be precipitated by carbonate of soda, which will separate them all. The oxide of zinc will be taken up by a solution of pure ammonia; distilled vinegar will take up the manganese, and will leave the oxide of iron. From the weight of this, after ignition, during a quarter of an hour, 28 per cent. may be deducted. The remainder shows the quantity of iron.

5. *Tin ores.* To that most accomplished analyst, Klaproth, we owe the discovery of a simple and effectual mode of analyzing tin ores in the humid way.

Boil 100 grains, in a silver vessel, with a solution of

600 grains of pure potash. Evaporate to dryness, and then ignite, moderately, for half an hour. Add boiling water, and, if any portion remain undissolved, let it undergo a similar treatment.

Saturate the alkaline solution with muriatic acid, which will throw down an oxide of tin. Let this be redissolved by an excess of muriatic acid; again precipitated by carbonate of soda; and, being dried and weighed, let it, after lixiviation, be once more dissolved in muriatic acid. The insoluble part consists of *silex*. Into the colourless solution, diluted with two or three parts of water, put a stick of zinc, round which the reduced tin will collect. Scrape off the deposit, wash, dry, and fuse it under a cover of tallow in a capsule placed on charcoal. A button of pure metallic tin will remain at the bottom, the weight of which, deducted from that of the ore, indicates the proportion of oxygen.

The presence of tin in an ore is indicated by a purple precipitate, on mixing its solution in muriatic acid with one of gold in nitro-muriatic acid.

6. *Lead ores* may be analyzed by solution in nitric acid, diluted with an equal weight of water. The sulphur, if any, will remain undissolved. Let the solution be precipitated by carbonate of soda. If any silver be present, it will be taken up by pure liquid ammonia. Wash off the excess of ammonia by distilled water; and add concentrated, sulphuric acid, applying heat, so that the muriatic acid may be wholly expelled. Weigh the sulphate of lead, and, after deducting 70 per cent. the remainder shows the quantity of lead.

Muriate of lead may also be separated from muriate of silver by its greater solubility in warm water. From the solution, iron may be separated by prussiate of potash, and the solution decomposed by sulphuric acid.

7. *Mercury* may be detected in ores that are supposed to contain it, by distillation in an earthen retort with half their weight of iron filings or lime. The mercury, if any be present, will rise and be condensed in the receiver.

8. *Ores of zinc* may be digested with the nitric acid, and the part that is dissolved boiled to dryness, again dissolved in the acid, and again evaporated. By this means the iron, if any be present, will be rendered insoluble in di-

lute nitric acid, which will take up the oxide of zinc. To this solution add pure liquid ammonia, in excess, which will separate the lead and iron, if any should have been dissolved; and the excess of alkali will retain the oxide of zinc. This may be separated by the addition of an acid.

9. *Antimonial ores.* Dissolve a given weight, in three or four parts of muriatic and one of nitric acid. This will take up the antimony, and leave the sulphur, if any. On dilution with water, the oxide of antimony is precipitated, and the iron and mercury remain dissolved. Lead may be detected by sulphuric acid. See Klaproth on the Analysis of Antimoniated Silver Ore, I. p. 560.

10. *Ores of arsenic* may be digested with nitro-muriatic acid, composed of one part nitric, and one and a half or two of muriatic acids. Evaporate the solution to one fourth, and add water, which will precipitate the arsenic. The iron may afterwards be separated by ammonia. See Chenevix, Phil. Trans. 1801, p. 215.

11. *Ores of bismuth* are also assayed by digestion in nitric acid moderately diluted. The addition of water precipitates the oxide, and, if not wholly separated at first, evaporate the solution; after which, a farther addition of water will precipitate the remainder. See Analysis of an Ore of Bismuth and Silver, in Klaproth, I. p. 554. Mode of detecting a small Quantity of Silver in Bismuth, ditto, p. 220. c.

12. *Ores of cobalt* may be dissolved in nitro-muriatic acid. Then add carbonate of potash, which, at first, separates iron and arsenic. Filter, and add a farther quantity of the carbonate, when a greyish-red precipitate will fall down, which is oxide of cobalt. The iron and arsenic may be separated by heat, which volatilizes the arsenic. Cobalt is also ascertained, if the solution of an ore in muriatic acid give a sympathetic ink. See Chap. xix. Sect. 18. An example of the analysis of an ore of cobalt may be seen in Klaproth, I. p. 564; and of sulphate of cobalt, p. 579.

13. *Ores of nickel.* Dissolve them in nitric acid, and add to the solution pure ammonia, in such proportion that the alkali may be considerably in excess. This will precipitate other metals, and will retain the oxide of nickel in solution, which may be obtained by evaporation to

dryness, and heating the dry mass till the nitrate of ammonia has sublimed.

14. *Ores of manganese.* The earths, and several of the metals, contained in these ores, may first be separated by diluted nitric acid, which does not act on highly oxydized manganese. The ore may afterward be digested with strong muriatic acid, which will take up the oxide of manganese. Oxygenized muriatic acid will arise, if a gentle heat be applied, and may be known by its peculiar smell, and by its discharging the colour of wet litmus paper exposed to the fumes. From muriatic acid the manganese is precipitated by carbonate of soda, in the form of a white oxide, which becomes black when heated in a crucible. Ores, suspected to contain manganese, may also be distilled *per se*, or with sulphuric acid, when oxygen gas will be obtained. Oxide of manganese may be separated from oxide of iron by solution of pure potash, which takes up the former but not the latter. See the analysis of an ore of manganese, *viâ humidâ*, in Klaproth, I. p. 510; and of a cobaltic ore of manganese, p. 569.

Ores of manganese may also be distinguished by the colour they impart to borax, when exposed together to the blow-pipe. See Chap. xviii. Sect. 19.

15. *Ores of uranium.* These may be dissolved in dilute nitric acid, which takes up the uranitic oxide, and leaves that of iron; or in dilute sulphuric acid, which makes the same election; or, if any iron has got into the solution, it may be precipitated by zinc. Then add caustic potash, which throws down the oxide of zinc and uranium. The former may be separated by digestion in pure ammonia, which leaves, undissolved, the oxide of uranium. This, when dissolved by dilute sulphuric acid, affords, on evaporation, crystals of a lemon-yellow colour.

If copper be present, it will be dissolved, along with the zinc, by the ammonia. If lead, it will form, with sulphuric acid, a salt much less soluble than the sulphate of uranium, and which, on evaporation, will therefore separate first.

16. *Ores of tungsten.* For these the most proper treatment seems to be digestion in nitro-muriatic acid, which takes up the earths and other metals. The tungsten remains

in the form of a yellow oxide, distinguishable, by its becoming white on the addition of liquid ammonia, from the oxide of uranium. To reduce this oxide to tungsten, mix it with an equal weight of dried blood, heat the mixture to redness, press it into another crucible, which should be nearly full, and apply a violent heat for an hour at least.

17. *Ores of Molybdena.* Repeated distillation to dryness, with nitric acid, converts the oxide into an acid, which is insoluble in nitric acid, and may be thus separated from other metals, except iron, from which it may be dissolved by sulphuric or muriatic acids. The solution in sulphuric acid is blue, when cold, but colourless, when heated. That in muriatic acid is only blue when the acid is heated and concentrated. (See Hatchett's Analysis of the Carinthian Molybdate of Lead, Phil. Trans. 1796; and Klaproth, vol. I. p. 534, 538.)

Respecting the ores of the remaining metals, sufficient information has been already given for the purposes of the general student, in Part i. Chap. 18. of this work; and they are of such rare occurrence, that it is unnecessary to describe them more in detail. It may be proper, however, to state where the best examples of the analysis of each may be found.

18. *Ores of titanium.* Consult Gregor in *Journ. de Physique*, xxxix. 72. 152; Klaproth, I. 496; and Chenevix, Nich. Journ. V. 132.

19. *Ores of tellurium.* See Klaproth, II. 1.

20. *Ores of tantalum.* *Ann. de Chim.* xliii. 276.

21. *Ores of chromium.* Vauquelin, *Ann. de Chim.* xxv.

22. *Ores of columbium.* Hatchett, Phil. Trans. 1802.

23. *Ores of palladium and rhodium.* Wollaston, Phil. Trans. 1805.

24. *Ores of iridium and osmium.* Tennant, Phil. Trans. 1804.

25. *Ores of cerium.* Hisenger and Berzelius, and Vauquelin, Nich. Journ. xii.

SECT. VII.

Analysis of Ores in the dry Way.

To analyze ores in the dry way, a method which affords the most satisfactory evidence of their composition, and should always precede the working of large and extensive strata, a more complicated apparatus is required.—An assaying furnace, with muffles, crucibles, &c. are absolutely necessary. These have already been enumerated in the chapter on Apparatus, and will be again described in the Explanation of the Plates.

The reduction of an ore requires, frequently, previously roasting, to expel the sulphur and other volatile ingredients: or this may be effected, by mixing the powdered ore with nitre, and projecting the mixture into a crucible. The sulphate of potash, thus formed, may be washed off, and the oxide must be reserved for subsequent experiments.

As many of the metals retain their oxygen so forcibly, that the application of heat is incapable of expelling it, the addition of inflammable matter becomes expedient. And, to enable the reduced particles of metal to agglutinate and form a collected mass, instead of scattered grains, which would otherwise happen, some fusible ingredient must be added, through which, when in fusion, the reduced metal may descend, and be collected at the bottom of the crucible. Substances that answer both these purposes are called *fluxes*. The alkaline and earthy part of fluxes serve also another end, viz. that of combining with any acid which may be attached to a metal, and which would prevent its reduction if not separated.

The ores of different metals, and different ores of the same metal, require different fluxes. To offer rules, however, for each individual case, would occupy too much room in this work: I shall, therefore, only state a few of those fluxes that are most generally applicable.

The *black flux* is formed, by setting fire to a mixture of one part of nitrate of potash, and two of acidulous tartre of potash; which affords an intimate mixture of sub-carbonate of potash, with a fine light coal. *White flux* is

obtained by projecting into a red-hot crucible, equal parts of the same salts. Two parts of muriate of soda, previously dried in a crucible, one part of dry and powdered lime, one part of fluuate of lime, and half a part of charcoal; or four hundred parts of calcined borax, forty of lime, and fifty of charcoal; or, two parts of pounded and finely sifted glass, one of borax, and half a part of charcoal, are all well adapted to the purpose of fluxes. The ore, after being roasted, if necessary, is to be well mixed with three or four times its weight of the flux, and put into a crucible, with a little powdered charcoal over the surface. A cover must be luted on, and the crucible exposed to the necessary heat in a wind-furnace. Ores of iron, as being difficultly reduced, require a very intense fire. Those of silver and lead are metallized by a lower heat. The metal is found at the bottom of the crucible in the form of a round button.

The volatile metals, as mercury, zinc, arsenic, tellurium, and osmium, it is obvious, ought not to be treated in the above manner, and require to be distilled with inflammable matters in an earthen retort.

For minute instructions respecting the analysis of every species of ore, both in the humid and dry ways, I refer to the second volume of Mr. Kirwan's *Mineralogy*; and, for various excellent examples, to the essays of Vauquelin, in the *Annales de Chimie*; to those of Mr. Hatchett and Mr. Chenevix, in the *Philosophical Transactions*; of Dr. Kennedy, in *Nicholson's Journal*; and of Mr. Klaproth, in the work already frequently referred to. It is only, indeed, by an attention to these, and a few other models of chemical skill and accuracy, conjoined with the practical imitation of them, that facility, or certainty, in the art of analyzing minerals, can be acquired: And though general rules are, in this instance, of considerable utility, it is impossible to frame any that can be adapted to the infinite variety which nature presents in the productions of the mineral kingdom.

PART III.

APPLICATION OF CHEMICAL TESTS AND RE-AGENTS TO
VARIOUS USEFUL PURPOSES.

CHAP. I.

METHOD OF DETECTING POISONS.

WHEN sudden death is suspected to have been occasioned by the administration of poison, either wilfully or by accident, the testimony of the physician is occasionally required to confirm or invalidate this suspicion. He may also be sometimes called upon to ascertain the cause of the noxious effects arising from the presence of poisonous substances in articles of diet; and it may therefore serve an important purpose, to point out concisely the simplest and most practicable modes of obtaining, by experiment, the necessary information.

The only poisons, however, that can be clearly and decisively detected by chemical means, are those of the mineral kingdom. Arsenic, and corrosive sublimate,* are most likely to be exhibited with the view of producing death; and lead and copper may be introduced undesignedly, in several ways, into our food and drink. The continued operation of the two last may often, unsuspec-

* I use the term arsenic, instead of the more proper one, arsenous acid; and corrosive sublimate, for muriate of mercury; because the former terms are more generally understood.

ted, produce effects less sudden and violent, but not less baneful to health and life, than the more active poisons ; and their operation generally involves, in the pernicious consequences, a greater number of sufferers.

SECT. I.

Method of discovering Arsenic.

When the cause of sudden death is believed, from the symptoms preceding it, to be the administration of arsenic, the contents of the stomach must be attentively examined. To effect this, let a ligature be made at each orifice, the stomach removed entirely from the body, and its whole contents washed out into an earthen or glass vessel. The arsenic, on account of its greater specific gravity, will settle to the bottom, and may be obtained separate by washing off the other substances, by repeated affusions of cold water. These washings should not be thrown away till the presence of arsenic has been clearly ascertained. It may be expected at the bottom of the vessel in the form of a white powder, which must be carefully collected, dried on a filter, and submitted to experiment.

(A.) Boil a small portion of the powder with a few ounces of distilled water, in a clean Florence flask, and filter the solution.

(B.) To this solution add a portion of water, saturated with sulphuretted hydrogen gas. If arsenic be present, a golden-yellow sediment will fall down, which will appear sooner, if a few drops of acetic acid be added.

(C.) A similar effect is produced by the addition of sulphuret of ammonia.

(D.) To a little of the solution (A.), add a single drop of a weak solution of carbonate of potash, and afterward a few drops of a solution of sulphate of copper. The presence of arsenic will be manifested by a yellowish-green precipitate ; or boil a portion of the suspected powder with a dilute solution of pure potash, and with this precipitate the sulphate of copper, when a similar appearance will ensue still more remarkably, if arsenic be

present. The colour of this precipitate is perfectly characteristic. It is that of the pigment called Scheele's green. (See chap. xviii. Sect. 17.) To identify the arsenic with still greater certainty, it may be proper, at the time of making the experiments on a suspected substance, to perform similar ones, as a standard of comparison, on what is actually known to be arsenic. Let the colour, therefore, produced by adding an alkaline solution of the substance under examination, to a solution of sulphate of copper, be compared with that obtained by a similar admixture of a solution of copper with one of real arsenic in alkali.

(E.) The sediments, produced by any of the foregoing experiments, may be collected, dried, and laid on red-hot charcoal. A smell of sulphur will first arise, and will be followed by that of garlic.

(F.) But the most decisive mode of determining the presence of arsenic, is by reducing it to a metallic state, in which its characters are clear and unequivocal. For this purpose, let a portion of the white sediment, collected from the contents of the stomach, be mixed with three times its weight of black flux (see page 244.); or if this cannot be procured, with two parts of very dry carbonate of potash (the salt of tartar of the shops,) and one of powdered charcoal. Procure a tube eight or nine inches long, and one-sixth of an inch in diameter, of thin glass, sealed hermetically at one end. Coat the closed end with clay, for about an inch, and let the coating dry. Then put into the tube the mixture of the powder and its flux, and if any should adhere to the inner surface, let it be wiped off by a feather, so that the inner surface of the upper part of the tube may be quite clean and dry. Stop the end of the tube loosely, with a little paper, and heat the coated end only, on a chafing-dish of red-hot coals, taking care to avoid breathing the fumes. The arsenic, if present, will rise to the upper part of the tube, on the inner surface of which it will form a thin brilliant coating. Break the tube, and scrape off the reduced metal. Lay a little on a heated iron, when, if it be arsenic, a dense smoke will arise, and a strong smell of garlic will be perceived. The arsenic may be farther identified, by putting a small quantity between two polished plates of copper, surrounding it by powdered charcoal, to prevent

its escape, binding these tightly together by iron wire, and exposing them to a low red heat. If the included substance be arsenic, a white stain will be left on the copper.

(G.) It may be proper to observe, that neither the stain on copper, nor the odour of garlic, is produced by the white oxide of arsenic, when heated without the addition of some inflammable ingredient. The absence of arsenic must not therefore be inferred, if no smell is occasioned by laying the white powder on a heated iron.

The late celebrated Dr. Black ascertained, that all the necessary experiments, for the detection of arsenic, may be made on a single grain of the white oxide; this small quantity having produced, when heated in a tube with its proper flux, as much of the metal as clearly established its presence.

If the quantity of arsenic in the stomach should be so small, which is not very probable, as to occasion death, and yet to remain suspended in the washings, the whole contents, and the water employed to wash them, must be filtered, and the clear liquor assayed for arsenic by the tests (B.) (C.) (D.) and (E.)

SECT. II.

Discovery of Corrosive Sublimate.

Corrosive sublimate (the muriate of mercury,) next to arsenic, is the most virulent of the metallic poisons. It may be collected by treating the contents of the stomach in the manner already described; but as it is more soluble than arsenic, viz. in about 19 times its weight of water, no more water must be employed than is barely sufficient, and the washings must be carefully preserved for examination.

If a powder should be collected, by this operation, which proves, on examination, not to be arsenic, it may be known to be corrosive sublimate by the following characters.

(A.) Expose a small quantity of it, without any admixture, to heat, in a coated glass tube, as directed in the

treatment of arsenic. Corrosive sublimate will be ascertained by its rising to the top of the tube, lining the inner surface in the form of a shining white crust.

(B.) Dissolve another portion in distilled water; and it may be proper to observe how much of the salt the water is capable of taking up.

(C.) To the watery solution add a little lime-water. A precipitate of an orange-yellow colour will instantly appear.

(D.) To another portion of the solution add a single drop of a dilute solution of carbonate of potash (salt of tartar). A white precipitate will appear; but, on a still farther addition of alkali, an orange-coloured sediment will be formed.

(E.) The carbonate of soda has similar effects.

(F.) Sulphuretted water throws down a dark-coloured sediment, which, when dried and strongly heated, is wholly volatilized, without any odour of garlic.

The only mineral poison of great virulence that has not been mentioned, and which, from its being little known to act as such, it is very improbable we should meet with, is the carbonate of barytes. This, in the country where it is found, is employed as a poison for rats, and there can be no doubt would be equally destructive to human life. It may be discovered by dissolving it in muriatic acid, and by the insolubility of the precipitate which this solution yields on adding sulphuric acid, or sulphate of soda. Barytic salts, if these have been the means of poison, will be contained in the water employed to wash the contents of the stomach, and will be detected, on adding sulphuric acid, by a copious precipitate.

SECT. III.

Method of detecting Copper or Lead.

Copper and lead sometimes gain admission into articles of food, in consequence of the employment of kitchen utensils of these materials.

I. If COPPER be suspected in any liquor, its presence

will be ascertained by adding a solution of pure ammonia which will strike a beautiful blue colour. If the solution be very dilute, it may be concentrated by evaporation; and if the liquor contain a considerable excess of acid, like that used to preserve pickles, as much of the alkali must be added as is more than sufficient to saturate the acid.

II. LEAD is occasionally found, in sufficient quantity to be injurious to health, in water that has been kept in leaden vessels, and sometimes even in pump-water, in consequence of this metal being used in the construction of the pump. Acetate of lead has also been known to be fraudulently added to bad wines, with the view of concealing their defects.

Lead may be discovered by adding, to a portion of the suspected water, about half its bulk of water impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen gas. If lead be present, it will be manifested by a dark-brown, or blackish tinge. This test is so delicate, that water, condensed by the leaden worm of a still-tub, is sensibly affected by it. It is also detected by a similar effect ensuing on the addition of sulphuret of ammonia, or potash.

The competency of this method, however, to the discovery of very minute quantities of lead, has been lately set aside by the experiments of Dr. Lambe,* the author of a skilful analysis of the springs of Lemington Priors, near Warwick. By new methods of examination, he has detected the presence of lead in several spring-waters, that manifest no change on the addition of the sulphuretted test; and has found that metal in the precipitate, separated from such waters by the carbonate of potash or of soda. In operating on these waters, Dr. Lambe noticed the following appearances.

(a) The test forms sometimes a dark cloud, with the precipitate affected by alkalies, which has been redissolved in nitric acid.

(b) Though it forms, in other cases, no cloud, the precipitate itself becomes darkened by the sulphuretted test.

(c) The test forms a white cloud, treated with the precipitate as in (a). These two appearances may be united.

* See his "Researches into the Properties of Spring Water." 8vo. London. Johnson. 1803.

(*d*) The test neither forms a cloud, nor darkens the precipitate.

(*e*) In the cases (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), heat the precipitate, in contact with an alkaline carbonate, to redness; dissolve out the carbonate by water; and treat the precipitate as in (*a*). The sulphuretted test then forms a dark cloud with the solution of the precipitate. In these experiments, it is essential that the acid, used to redissolve the precipitate, shall not be in excess; and if it should so happen, that excess must be saturated before the test is applied. It is better to use so little acid, that some of the precipitate may remain undissolved.

(*f*) Instead of the process (*e*) the precipitate may be exposed without addition, to a red heat, and then treated as in (*a*). In this case, the test will detect the metallic matter; but with less certainty than the foregoing one.

The nitric acid, used in these experiments, should be perfectly pure; and the test should be recently prepared, by saturating water with sulphuretted hydrogen gas.

Another mode of analysis, employed by Dr. Lambe, consists in precipitating the lead by muriate of soda; but as muriate of lead is partly soluble in water, this test cannot be applied to small portions of suspected water. The precipitate must be, therefore, collected from two or three gallons, and heated to redness with twice its weight of carbonate of soda. Dissolve out the soda; add nitric acid, saturating any superfluity; and then apply the sulphuretted test.

The third process, which is the most satisfactory of all, and is very easy, except for the trouble of collecting a large quantity of precipitate, is the actual reduction of the metal, and its exhibition in a separate form. The precipitate may be mixed with its own weight of alkaline carbonate, and exposed either with or without the addition of a small proportion of charcoal, to a heat sufficient to melt the alkali. On breaking the crucible, a small globule of lead will be found reduced at the bottom. The precipitate from about fifty gallons of water yielded Dr. L. about two grains of lead.

For discovering the presence of lead in wines, a test, invented by Dr. Hahnemann, and known by the title of

Hahnemann's wine-test, may be employed. This test is prepared by putting together, into a small phial, sixteen grains of sulphuret of lime, prepared in the dry way, and 20 grains of acidulous tartrate of potash (cream of tartar). The phial is to be filled with water, well corked, and occasionally shaken for the space of ten minutes. When the powder has subsided, decant the clear liquor, and preserve it, in a well-stopped bottle, for use. The liquor, when fresh prepared, discovers lead by a dark-coloured precipitate. A further proof of the presence of lead in wines is the occurrence of a precipitate on adding a solution of the sulphate of soda.

The quantity of lead, which has been detected in sophisticated wine, may be estimated at forty grains of the metal in every fifty gallons. (Lambe, p. 175.)

When a considerable quantity of acetate of lead has been taken into the stomach, (as sometimes, owing to its sweet taste, happens to children) after the exhibition of an active emetic, the hydro-sulphurate of potash or of ammonia may be given; or a solution of the common sulphuret.

In cases of the accidental swallowing of sulphuric acid, which also sometimes happens to children, M. Fourcroy recommends the speedy administration of a solution of soap, or a mixture of carbonate of magnesia or carbonate of lime (common chalk) with water. (Système, Vol. I. p. 240.)

CHAP. II.

RULES FOR ASCERTAINING THE PURITY OF CHEMICAL PREPARATIONS, EMPLOYED FOR THE PURPOSES OF MEDICINE, AND FOR OTHER USES.

1. *Sulphuric acid*,—*Acidum Vitriolicum* of the London Pharmacopœia, — *Oil of Vitriol*.

The specific gravity of sulphuric acid should be 1850. It should remain perfectly transparent when diluted with distilled water. If a sediment occur, on dilution, it is a proof of the presence of sulphate of lead or of lime.

Iron may be detected in sulphuric acid, by saturating a diluted portion of it with pure carbonate of soda, and adding prussiate of potash, which will manifest the presence of iron by a Prussian blue precipitate; or it will be discovered by a purplish or blackish tinge, on the addition of tincture of galls to a similarly saturated portion. Copper may be discovered, by pouring, into a similarly saturated solution, pure solution of ammonia; and lead may be detected by the sulphuret of ammonia. The latter metal, however, is generally precipitated, on dilution, in combination with sulphuric acid.

Sulphate of potash or of soda may be found by saturating the diluted acid with ammonia, evaporating to dryness, and applying a pretty strong heat. The sulphate of ammonia will escape, and that of potash or of soda will remain, and may be distinguished by its solubility and other characters. See chap. xi. sec. 4.

2. *Nitric and Nitrous Acids*,—*Acidum Nitrosum*, *Pharm. Lond.*—*Aqua fortis*.

The nitric acid should be perfectly colourless, and as limpid as water. It should be preserved in a dark place, to prevent its conversion into the nitrous kind.

These acids are most likely to be adulterated with sulphuric and muriatic acids. The sulphuric acid may be discovered by adding to a portion of the acid, largely diluted, nitrated or muriated barytes, which will occasion, with sulphuric acid, a white and insoluble precipitate. The muriatic acid may be ascertained by nitrate of silver, which affords a sediment, at first white, but which becomes coloured by exposure to the direct light of the sun. Both these acids, however, may be present at once; and, in this case, it will be necessary to add a solution of nitrate of barytes, as long as any precipitate falls, which will separate the sulphuric acid. Let the sediment subside, decant the clear liquor, and add the nitrate of silver. If a precipitate appear, muriatic acid may be inferred to be present also. Muriatic acid may, also, be detected by adding a solution of sulphate of silver.

These acids should have the specific gravity of 1550.

3. *Muriatic Acid*,—*Acidum Muriaticum*, *P. L.*—*Spirit of Salt*.

This acid generally contains iron, which may be known by its yellow colour; the pure acid being perfectly colourless. It may also be detected by the same mode as was recommended in examining sulphuric acid.

Sulphuric acid is discoverable by a precipitation, on adding, to a portion of the acid, diluted with five or six parts of pure water, a solution of the muriate of barytes.

The specific gravity of this acid should be at least 1170.

4. *Acetic Acid*,—*Acidum Acetosum*, P. L.—*Radical or concentrated Vinegar*.

This acid is often contaminated by sulphurous and sulphuric acid. The first may be known by drawing a little of the vapour into the lungs, when, if the acid be pure, no unpleasant sensation will be felt; but, if sulphurous acid be contained in the acetic, it will not fail to be discovered in this mode. The sulphuric acid is detected by muriated barytes; copper, by supersaturation with pure ammonia; and lead, by sulphuret of ammonia.

The specific gravity of this acid should be 1060 at least.

5. *Acetous Acid*,—*Acetum Distillatum*, P. L.—*Distilled Vinegar*.

If vinegar be distilled in copper vessels, it can hardly fail being contaminated by that metal; and, if a leaden worm be used for its condensation, some portion of lead will certainly be dissolved. The former metal will appear on adding an excess of solution of pure ammonia; and lead will be detected by the sulphuretted ammonia, or by water saturated with sulphuretted hydrogen. (See the preceding chapter.)

It is not unusual, in order to increase the acid taste of vinegar, to add sulphuric acid. This acid may be immediately discovered by solutions of barytes, which, when vinegar has been thus adulterated, throw down a white precipitate.

6. *Boracic Acid*,—*Sedative Salt of Homberg*.

Genuine boracic acid should totally dissolve in five times its weight of boiling alcohol; and the solution, when set on fire, should emit a green flame. The best boracic acid forms small hexangular scaly crystals of a shining silvery white colour. Its specific gravity is 1480.

7. *Tartarous Acid.*

This acid often contains sulphuric acid ; to discover which, let a portion be dissolved in water, and a solution of acetite of lead be added. A precipitate will appear, which, if the acid be pure, is entirely redissolved by a few drops of pure nitric acid, or by a little pure acetic acid. If any portion remain undissolved, sulphuric acid is the cause. Muriate of barytes, also, when the acid is adulterated with sulphuric acid, but not otherwise, gives a precipitate insoluble by an excess of muriatic acid.

8. *Acid of Amber.*

Acid of amber is adulterated, sometimes with sulphuric acid and its combinations ; sometimes with tartarous acid ; and at others with muriate of ammonia.

Sulphuric acid is detected by solutions of barytes ; tartarous acid by carbonate of potash, which forms a difficultly-soluble tartrate ; and muriate of ammonia by nitrate of silver, which discovers the acid, and by a solution of pure potash, which excites a strong smell of ammonia.

Pure acid of amber is a crystalline white salt of an acid taste, soluble in twenty-four parts of cold or eight of hot water, and is volatilized, when laid on red-hot iron, without leaving any ashes or other residue.

9. *Acid of Benzoin,—Flores Benzoes, P. L.*

This acid is not very liable to adulteration. The best has a brilliant white colour and a peculiarly grateful smell. It is soluble in a large quantity of boiling water or alcohol, and leaves no residue when placed on a heated iron.

10. *Sub-carbonate of Potash,—Kali Preparatum, P. L.*

The salt of tartar of the shops generally contains sulphate and muriate of potash, and silicious and calcareous earths. It should dissolve entirely, if pure, in twice its

weight of cold water; and any thing that remains undissolved may be regarded as an impurity. Sometimes one fourth of foreign mixtures may thus be detected, the greater part of which is sulphate of potash. To ascertain the nature of the adulteration, dissolve a portion in pure and diluted nitric acid: the silicious earth only will remain undissolved. Add, to one portion of the solution, nitrate of barytes; this will detect sulphate of potash by a copious precipitate. To another portion add nitrate of silver, which will discover muriatic salts, and, to a third, oxalate or fluat of ammonia, which will detect calcareous earth.

The solution of carbonate of potash (*Aqua Kali, P. L.*) may be examined in a similar manner.

11. *Solution of pure Potash,—Aqua Kali Puri, P. L.*

This may be assayed, for sulphuric and muriatic salts, by saturation with nitric acid, and by the tests recommended in speaking of carbonate of potash. A perfectly pure solution of potash should remain transparent on the addition of barytic water. If a precipitate should ensue, which dissolves with effervescence in dilute muriatic acid, it is owing to the presence of carbonic acid: if the precipitate is not soluble, it indicates sulphuric acid. A redundancy of carbonic acid is also shown by an effervescence, on adding diluted sulphuric acid, and an excess of lime by a white precipitate, on blowing air, from the lungs, through the solution, by means of a tobacco-pipe, or a glass tube.

This solution should be of such a strength, as that an exact wine pint may weigh 18 ounces troy.

12. *Carbonate of Soda,—Natron Preparatum, P. L.*

Carbonate of soda is scarcely ever found free from muriate and sulphate of soda. These may be discovered by adding, to a little of the carbonate saturated with pure nitric acid, first nitrate of barytes, to detect sulphuric acid, and afterward nitrate of silver, to ascertain the presence of muriatic acid. Carbonate of potash will be shown by a

precipitate ensuing on the addition of tartarous acid to a strong solution of the alkali; for, this acid forms a difficultly-soluble salt with potash, but not with soda.

13. *Solution of Carbonate of Ammonia,—Aqua Ammonia, P. L.*

This should have the specific gravity of 1150; should effervesce on the addition of acids; and should afford a strong coagulum on adding alcohol.

14. *Carbonate of Ammonia,—Ammonia Preparata, P. L.*

This salt should be entirely volatilized by heat. If any thing remain, when it is laid on a heated iron, carbonate of potash or of lime may be suspected; and these impurities are most likely to be present if the carbonate of ammonia be purchased in the form of a powder. It should therefore always be bought in solid lumps. Sulphuric and muriatic salts, lime and iron, may be discovered by adding to the alkali, saturated with nitric acid, the appropriate tests already often mentioned.

15. *Solution of pure Ammonia in Water,—Aqua Ammoniac Pura, P. L.—Strong Spirit of Sal Ammoniac.*

The volatile alkali, in its purest state, exists as a gas condensible by water, and its solution in water is the only form under which it is applicable to useful purposes. This solution should contain nothing besides the volatile alkali; the alkali should be perfectly free from carbonic acid, and should be combined with water in the greatest possible proportion. The presence of other salts may be discovered by saturating a portion of the solution with pure nitric acid, and adding the tests for sulphuric and muriatic acids. Carbonic acid is shown by a precipitation on mixing the solution with one of muriate of lime; for this earthy salt is not precipitated by pure ammonia. The only mode of determining the strength of the solu-

tion is by taking its specific gravity, which, at 60° of Fahrenheit, should be as 905, or thereabouts, to 1000.

16. *Spirit of Hartshorn*,—*Liquor Volatilis Cornu Cervi*,
P. L.

This may be counterfeited by mixing the aqua ammoniæ puræ with the distilled spirit of hartshorn, in order to increase the pungency of its smell, and to enable it to bear an addition of water. The fraud is detected by adding alcohol to the sophisticated spirit; for, if no considerable coagulation ensues, the adulteration is proved. It may also be discovered by the usual effervescence not ensuing with acids. The solution should have the specific gravity of 1500.

17. *Sulphate of Soda*,—*Natron Vitriolatum*, *P. L.*—
Glauber's Salt.

This salt ought not to contain an excess of either acid or alkali, both of which may be detected by the vegetable infusions, page 310. Nor should it be mixed with earthy or metallic salts; the former of which are detected by carbonate, and the latter by prussiate of potash. Muriate of soda is discovered by adding nitrate of barytes till the precipitate ceases, and afterwards nitrate of silver, or more simply by a solution of sulphate of silver. Sulphate of potash is discovered by its more sparing solubility. The sulphate of soda, however, being itself one of the cheapest salts, there is little risk of its being intentionally sophisticated.

18. *Sulphate of Potash*,—*Kali Vitriolatum*, *P. L.*—
Vitriolated Tartar.

The purity of this salt may be ascertained by the same means as that of the former one. The little value of this salt renders it pretty secure from wilful adulteration.

19. *Nitrate of Potash*,—*Nitrum Purificatum, P. L.*—*Nitre or Salt Petre.*

Nitrate of potash is, with great difficulty, freed entirely from muriate of soda; and a small portion of the latter, except for nice chemical purposes, is an admixture of little importance. To discover muriate of soda, a solution of nitrate of silver must be added as long as any sediment is produced. The precipitate, washed and dried, must be weighed. Every hundred grains will denote $49\frac{1}{2}$ of muriate of soda.

Sulphate of potash or soda may be discovered by nitrate or muriate of barytes.

20. *Muriate of Soda*.—*Common Salt.*

Common salt is scarcely ever found free from salts with earthy bases, chiefly muriates of magnesia and lime, which are contained in the brine, and adhere to the crystals. The earths may be precipitated by carbonate of soda, and the precipitated lime and magnesia may be separated from each other by the rules given page 340.

21. *Muriate of Ammonia*,—*Ammonia Muriata, P. L.*—*Sal Ammoniac.*

This salt ought to be entirely volatilized, by a low heat, when laid on a heated iron. It sometimes contains sulphate of ammonia, however, which, being also volatile, cannot be thus detected. To ascertain the presence of the latter salt, add the muriate or nitrate of barytes, which will indicate the sulphate by a copious and insoluble precipitate.

22. *Acetate of Potash*,—*Kali Acetatum P. L.*

Genuine acetate of potash is perfectly soluble in four times its weight of alcohol, and may thus be separated from other salts that are insoluble in alcohol. The tar-

trite of potash (soluble tartar) is the adulteration most likely to be employed. This may be discovered by adding a solution of tartarous acid, which, if the suspected salt be present, will occasion a copious precipitate. The tartrite is also detected by its forming a precipitate with acetate of lead or muriate of barytes, soluble in acetic or muriatic acid; and sulphates by a precipitate with the same agents, insoluble in acids.

23. *Neutral Tartrite of Potash*.—*Kali Tartarizatum, P. L.*
—*Soluble Tartar.*

This salt should afford a very copious precipitate on adding tartarous acid. The only salt likely to be mixed with it is sulphate of soda, which may be detected by a precipitate with muriated barytes, insoluble in diluted muriatic acid.

24. *Acidulous Tartrite of Potash*.—*Tartarum Purificatum, P. L.*—*Cream of Tartar.*

The only substance with which this salt is likely to be adulterated is sulphate of potash. To determine whether this be present, pour, on about half an ounce of the powdered crystals, two or three ounce measures of distilled water; shake the mixture frequently, and let it stand one or two hours. The sulphate of potash, being more soluble than the tartrite, will be taken up; and may be known by the bitter taste of the solution, and by a precipitate, on adding muriate of barytes, which will be insoluble in muriatic acid.

25. *Compound Tartrite of Soda and Potash*.—*Natron Tartarizatum, P. L.*—*Rochelle or Seignette's Salt.*

Sulphate of soda, the only salt with which this may be expected to be adulterated, is discovered by adding to a solution of Rochelle salt the acetate of lead or muriate of barytes.—The former, if the sulphate be present, affords

a precipitate insoluble in acetic acid, and the latter one insoluble in muriatic acid.

26. *Sulphate of Magnesia,—Magnesia Vitriolata, P. L.—Epsom Salt.*

This salt is very likely to be adulterated with sulphate of soda, or Glauber's salt, which may be made to resemble the magnesian salt in appearance, by stirring it briskly at the moment when it is about to crystallize. The fraud may be discovered very readily if the salt consist entirely of the sulphate of soda, because no precipitation will ensue on adding carbonate of potash. If only a part of the salt be sulphate of soda, detection is not so easy, but may still be accomplished. For, since 100 parts of pure sulphate of magnesia give between 30 and 40 of the dry carbonate, when completely decomposed by carbonate of potash, if the salt under examination afford a considerably less proportion, its sophistication may be fairly inferred: or, to discover the sulphate of soda, precipitate all the magnesia, by pure ammonia, with the aid of heat. Decant the clear liquor from the precipitate, filter it, and, after evaporation to dryness, apply such a heat as will volatilize the sulphate of ammonia, when that of soda will remain fixed.

Muriate of magnesia or of lime may be detected by the salt becoming moist when exposed to the air, and by a precipitation with nitrated silver, after nitrate of barytes has separated all the sulphuric acid and magnesia. Lime is discoverable by oxalic acid.

27. *Sulphate of Alumine,—Alum.*

Perfectly pure alum should contain neither iron nor copper. The former is manifested by adding, to a solution of alum, prussiate of potash, and the latter by an excess of pure ammonia.

28. *Borate of Soda,--Borax.*

Borate of soda, if adulterated at all, will probably be so with alum or fused muriate of soda. To discover these, borax must be dissolved in water, and its excess of alkali be saturated with nitric acid. Nitrate of barytes, added to this saturated solution, will detect the sulphuric salt, and nitrate of silver the muriate of soda.

29. *Sulphate of Iron,--Ferrum Vitriolatum, P. L.--Green Vitriol.*

If this salt should contain copper, which is the only admixture likely to be found in it, pure ammonia, added till a precipitation ceases, will afford a blue liquor. Any copper that may chance to be present, may be separated, and the salt purified, by immersing, in a solution of it, a clear polished plate of iron.

30. *Tartarized Antimony,--Antimonium Tartarizatum, P. L.--Emetic Tartar.*

A solution of this salt should afford, with acetate of lead, a precipitate perfectly soluble in dilute nitric acid. A few drops of the sulphuret of ammonia, also, should immediately precipitate a gold-coloured sulphuret of antimony.

31. *Muriate of Mercury,--Hydrargyrum Muriatum, P. L.--Corrosive Sublimate.*

If there be any reason to suspect arsenic in this salt, the fraud may be discovered as follows:--Dissolve a small quantity of the sublimate in distilled water; add a solution of carbonate of ammonia till the precipitate ceases, and filter the solution. If, on the addition of a few drops of

ammoniated copper* to this solution, a precipitate of a yellowish green colour is produced, the sublimate contains arsenic.

32. *Sub-muriate of Mercury,—Calomel, P. L.*

Calomel should be completely saturated with mercury. This may be ascertained by boiling, for a few minutes, one part of calomel with 1-32d part of muriate of ammonia (sal ammoniac) in 10 parts of distilled water. When carbonate of potash is added to the filtered solution, no precipitation will ensue, if the calomel be pure. This preparation, when rubbed in an earthen mortar with pure ammonia, should become intensely black, and should exhibit nothing of an orange hue.

33. *Mercury, or Quicksilver,—Hydrargyrum, P. L.*

Scarcely any substance is so liable to adulteration as mercury, owing to the property which it possesses of dissolving completely some of the baser metals. This union is so strong that they even rise along with the quicksilver when distilled. The impurity of mercury is generally indicated by its dull aspect ; by its tarnishing and becoming covered with a coat of oxide, on long exposure to the air ; by its adhesion to the surface of glass ; and, when shaken with water in a bottle, by the speedy formation of a black powder. Lead and tin are frequent impurities, and the mercury becomes capable of taking up more of these if zinc or bismuth be previously added. In order to discover lead, the mercury may be agitated with a little water, in order to oxydize that metal. Pour off the water, and digest the mercury with a little acetous acid. This will dissolve the oxide of lead, which will be indicated by a blackish precipitate with sulphuretted water. Or, to this acetous solution, add a little sulphate of soda, which will precipitate a sulphate of lead, containing, when dry, 72 per cent. of metal. If only a very minute quantity of lead be present, in a large quantity of mercury, it may be

* Prepared by digesting a little verdgris in the solution of pure ammonia.

detected by solution in nitric acid and the addition of sulphuretted water. A dark brown precipitate will ensue, and will subside if allowed to stand a few days. One part of lead may thus be separated from 15-63 parts of mercury.* Bismuth is detected by pouring a nitric solution, prepared without heat, into distilled water; a white precipitate will appear if this metal be present. Tin is manifested, in like manner, by a weak solution of nitromuriate of gold, which throws down a purple sediment, and zinc by exposing the metal to heat.

34. *Red Oxide of Mercury,—Hydrargyrus Calcinatus, P. L.*

This substance is rarely found adulterated, as it would be difficult to find a substance well suited to this purpose. If well prepared, it may be totally volatilized by heat.

35. *Red Oxide of Mercury by Nitric Acid,—Hydrargyrus Nitratus Ruber, P. L.—Red Precipitate.*

This is very liable to adulteration with minium, or red-lead. The fraud may be discovered by digesting it in acetic acid, and adding to the solution sulphuretted water, or sulphuret of ammonia, which produce, with the compounds of lead, a dirty dark coloured precipitate. It should also be totally volatilized by heat.

36. *White Oxide of Mercury,—Calx Hydrargyri Alba, P. L.—White Precipitate.*

White lead is the most probable adulteration of this substance, and chalk may also be occasionally mixed with it. The oxide of lead may be discovered as in the last article; and chalk, by adding to the dilute solution a little oxalic acid.

* See Mr. Accum's valuable papers on the detection of adulterations in Nicholson's Journal, 4to.

37. *Red Sulphuretted Oxide of Mercury,—Hydrargyrus Sulphuratus Ruber, P. L.—Factitious Cinnabar.*

This substance is frequently adulterated with red lead, which may be detected by the foregoing rules. Chalk and dragon's blood are also sometimes mixed with it. The chalk is discovered by an effervescence on adding acetic acid, and by pouring oxalic acid in to the acetous solution. Dragon's blood will be left unvolatilized when the sulphuret is exposed to heat, and may be detected by its giving a colour to alcohol, when the cinnabar is digested with it.

38. *Black Sulphuretted Oxide of Mercury,—Hydrargyrum cum Sulphure, P. L.—Ethiops Mineral.*

The mercury and sulphur, in this preparation, should be so intimately combined, that no globules of the metals can be discovered by a magnifier; and that, when rubbed on gold, no white stain may be communicated. The admixture of ivory black may be detected by its not being wholly volatilized by heat; or, by boiling with alkali to extract the sulphur, and afterwards exposing the residuum to heat, which ought entirely to evaporate.

39. *Yellow Oxide or Sub-Sulphate of Mercury,—Hydrargyrum Vitriolatus, P. L.—Turbit Mineral.*

This preparation should be wholly evaporable; and, when digested with distilled water, the water ought not to take up any sulphuric acid, which will be discovered by muriate of barytes.

40. *Fused Nitrate of Silver,—Argentum Nitratum, P. L.—Lunar Caustic.*

The most probable admixture with this substance is nitrate of copper, derived from the employment of an im-

pure silver. In moderate proportion this is of little importance. It may be ascertained by solution in water, and adding an excess of pure ammonia, which will detect copper by a deep blue colour.

41. *White Oxide of Zinc*,—*Zincum Calcinatum*, P. L.—*Flowers of Zinc*.

Oxide of zinc may be adulterated with chalk, which is discoverable by an effervescence with acetous acid, and by the precipitation of this solution with oxalic acid. Lead is detected by adding, to the acetous solution, sulphuretted water, or sulphuret of ammonia. Arsenic, to which the activity of this medicine has been sometimes ascribed, is detected, also, by sulphuretted water, added to the acetous solution: but in this case the precipitate has a yellow colour, and, when laid on red-hot charcoal, gives first a smell of sulphur, and afterwards of arsenic.

42. *White Oxide of Lead*,—*Cerussa*, P. L.—*White Lead*.

This is frequently sophisticated with chalk; the presence of which may be detected by cold acetous acid, and by adding, to this solution, oxalic acid. Carbonate of barytes is detected by sulphate of soda added to the same solution, very largely diluted with distilled water; and sulphate of barytes, or sulphate of lead, by the insolubility of the ceruse in boiling distilled vinegar.

43. *Acetate of Lead*,—*Cerussa Acetata*, P. L.—*Sugar of Lead*.

If the acetate of lead should be adulterated with acetate of lime or of barytes, the former may be detected by adding, to a dilute solution, the oxalic acid; and the latter by sulphuric acid, or solution of sulphate of soda, added to a solution very largely diluted with water. Acetate of lead ought to dissolve entirely in water, and any thing that resists solution may be regarded as an impurity.

44. *Green Oxide, or Subacetate of Copper,—Verdegris.*

This substance is scarcely ever found pure, being mixed with pieces of copper, grape-stalks, and other impurities. The amount of this admixture of insoluble substances may be ascertained by boiling a portion of verdegris with 12 or 14 times its weight of distilled vinegar, allowing the undissolved part to settle, and ascertaining its amount. Sulphate of copper may be detected by boiling the verdegris with water, and evaporating the solution. Crystals of acetite of copper will first separate, and, when the solution has been farther concentrated, the sulphate of copper will crystallize. Or it may be discovered by adding to the watery solution muriate of barytes, which will throw down a very abundant precipitate. Tartrate of copper, another adulteration sometimes met with, is discovered by dissolving a little of the verdegris in acetic acid, and adding acetite or muriate of barytes, which will afford, with the tartarous acid, a precipitate soluble in muriatic acid.

45. *Crystallized Acetate of Copper,—Distilled or Crystallized Verdegris.*

This is prepared by dissolving the common verdegris in distilled vinegar, and crystallizing the solution. These crystals should dissolve entirely in six times their weight of boiling water, and the solution should give no precipitation with solutions of barytes; for, if these solutions throw down a precipitate, sulphate of copper is indicated. This impurity, which I have frequently met with, may be discovered by evaporating the solution very low, and separating the crystals of acetate of copper. Farther evaporation and cooling will crystallize the sulphate, if any be present.

46. *Carbonate of Magnesia,—Magnesia Alba, P. L.*

Carbonate of magnesia is most liable to adulteration with chalk; and, as lime forms with sulphuric acid a very

insoluble salt, and magnesia one very readily dissolved, this acid may be employed in detecting the fraud. To a suspected portion of magnesia add a little sulphuric acid, diluted with 8 or 10 times its weight of water. If the magnesia should entirely be taken up, and the solution should remain transparent, it may be pronounced pure, but not otherwise. Another mode of discovering the deception is as follows:—Saturate a portion of the suspected magnesia with muriatic acid, and add a solution of carbonate of ammonia. If any lime be present, it will form an insoluble precipitate, but the magnesia will remain in solution.

47. *Pure Magnesia.*—*Magnesia Usta, P. L.*—*Calcined Magnesia.*

Calcined magnesia may be assayed by the same tests as the carbonate. It ought not to effervesce at all with dilute sulphuric acid; and, if the earth and acid be put together into one scale of a balance, no diminution of weight should ensue on mixing them together. It should be perfectly free from taste, and, when digested with distilled water, the filtered liquor should manifest no property of lime-water. Calcined magnesia, however, is very seldom so pure as to be totally dissolved by diluted sulphuric acid; for a small insoluble residue generally remains, consisting chiefly of silicious earth, derived from the alkali. The solution in sulphuric acid, when largely diluted, ought not to afford any precipitation with oxalate of ammonia.

48. *Spirit of Wine, Alcohol, and Æthers.*

The only decisive mode of ascertaining the purity of spirit of wine and of æthers, is by determining their specific gravity. Highly-rectified alcohol should have the specific gravity of 820 to 1000. Common spirit of wine 837. Sulphuric æther 739. The spiritus ætheris vitriolicus, P. L. or sweet spirit of vitriol, about 753,—and nitric æther, the spiritus ætheris nitrosus, or sweet spirit

of nitre, 908. The æthers ought not to redden the colour of litmus, nor ought those formed from sulphuric acid to give any precipitation with solutions of barytes.

49. *Essential or Volatile Oils.*

As essential oils constitute only a very small proportion of the vegetables from which they are obtained, and bear generally a very high price, there is a considerable temptation to adulterate them. They are found sophisticated, either with cheaper volatile oils, with fixed oils, or with the spirit of wine. The fixed oils are discovered by distillation with a very gentle heat, which elevates the essential oils, and leaves the fixed ones. These last may, also, be detected by moistening a little writing paper with the suspected oil, and holding it before the fire. If the oil be entirely essential, no stain will remain on the paper. Alcohol, also, detects the fixed oils, because it only dissolves the essential ones, and the mixture becomes milky. The presence of cheaper essential oils is discovered by the smell. Alcohol, a cheaper liquid than some of the most costly oils, is discovered by adding water, which, if alcohol be present, occasions a milkiness.

CHAP. III.

USE OF CHEMICAL RE-AGENTS TO CERTAIN ARTISTS
AND MANUFACTURERS.

To point out all the beneficial applications of chemical substances to the purposes of the arts, would require a distinct and very extensive treatise. In this place I have no farther view than to describe the mode of detecting adulterations in certain articles of commerce; the strength and purity of which are essential to the success of chemical processes.

1. *Mode of detecting the Adulteration of Potashes, Pearl-ashes, and Barilla.*

Few objects of commerce are sophisticated to a greater extent than the alkalies, to the great loss and injury of the bleacher, the dyer, the glass-maker, the soap-boiler, and of all other artists who are in the habit of employing these substances. In the first part of this work (see p. 111) I have already given rules for discovering such adulterations; and to what has been said, I apprehend it is only necessary to add the directions of Mr. Kirwan, intended to effect the same end, but differing in the mode. They are transcribed from his paper, entitled, "Experiments on the Alkaline Substances used in Bleaching;"—see Transactions of the Irish Academy for 1789.

“ To discover whether any quantity of fixed alkali worthy of attention exists in any saline compound, dissolve one ounce of it in boiling water, and into this solution let fall a drop of a solution of sublimate corrosive; this will be converted into a brick-colour, if an alkali be present, or into a brick-colour mixed with yellow, if the substance tried contains lime.

“ But the substances used by bleachers being always impregnated with an alkali, the above trial is in general superfluous, except for the purpose of detecting lime. The quantity of alkali is therefore what they should chiefly be solicitous to determine, and for this purpose :

“ 1st, Procure a quantity of alum, suppose one pound, reduce it to powder, wash it with cold water, and then put it into a tea-pot, pouring on it three or four times its weight of boiling water.

“ 2dly, Weigh an ounce of the ash or alkaline substance to be tried, powder it, and put it into a Florence flask with one pound of pure water, (common water, boiled for a quarter of an hour, and afterwards filtered through paper, will answer); if the substance to be examined be of the nature of barilla or potash, or half a pound of water if it contain but little earthy matter, as pearl-ash. Let them boil for a quarter of an hour; when cool, let the solution be filtered into another Florence flask.

“ 3dly, This being done, gradually pour the solution of alum hot into the alkaline solution also heated; a precipitation will immediately appear; shake them well together, and let the effervescence, if any, cease before more of the aluminous solution be added; continue the addition of the alum until the mixed liquor, when clear, turns syrup of violets, or paper tinged blue by radishes, or by litmus, red; then pour the liquor and precipitate on a paper-filter, placed in a glass funnel. The precipitated earth will remain on the filter; pour on this a pound or more of hot water, gradually, until it passes tasteless; take up the filter, and let the earth dry on it until they separate easily. Then put the earth into a cup of Staffordshire ware, place it on hot sand, and dry the earth until it ceases to stick to glass or iron; then pound it, and reduce it to powder in the cup with a glass pestle, and keep it a quarter of an hour in a heat of from 470° to 500° .

"4thly, The earth being thus dried, throw it into a Florence flask, and weigh it; then put about one ounce of spirit of salt into another flask, and place this in the same scale as the earth, and counterbalance both in the opposite scale; this being done, pour the spirit of salt gradually into the flask that contains the earth; and, when all effervescence is over, (if there be any,) blow into the flask, and observe what weight must be added to the scale containing the flasks to restore the equilibrium; subtract this weight from that of the earth, the remainder is a weight exactly *proportioned* to the weight of mere alkali of that particular species which is contained in one ounce of the substance examined; all beside is superfluous matter.

"I have said, that alkalies of the *same species* may thus be directly compared, because alkalies of *different species* cannot but require the intervention of another proportion; and the reason is, because *equal quantities* of alkalies of different species precipitate unequal quantities of earth of alum: Thus 100 parts, by weight, of mere vegetable alkali precipitate 78 of earth of alum, but 100 parts of *mineral* alkali precipitate 170.8 parts of that earth. Therefore the precipitation of 78 parts of earth of alum, by vegetable alkali, denotes as much of this, as the precipitation of 170.8 of that earth by the mineral alkali, denotes of the mineral alkali. Hence the quantities of alkali in all the different species of pot-ashes, pearl-ashes, weed or wood ashes, may be immediately compared with the above test, as they all contain the vegetable alkali; and the different kinds of kelp or kelps manufactured in different places, and the different sorts of barilla, may thus be compared, because they all contain the mineral alkali. But kelps and pot-ashes, as they contain different sorts of alkali, can only be compared together by means of the proportion above indicated."

2. Mode of detecting the Adulteration of Manganese.

In the section on drugs, instructions may be found for discovering impurities in several chemical preparations; employed by the artist, as ceruse or white lead, red lead, verd^{green} &c. No rules, however, have been given for

examining manganese, which is a substance that varies much in quality, and is often sophisticated ; as the bleachers experience, to their no small disappointment and loss.

The principal defect of manganese arises from the admixture of chalk, which is not always an intentional adulteration, but is sometimes found united with it, as it occurs in the earth. When to this impure manganese mixed with muriate of soda, the sulphuric acid is added, the materials effervesce and swell considerably, and a large proportion passes into the receiver ; in consequence of which the bleaching liquor is totally spoiled. This misfortune has, to my knowledge, frequently happened, and can only be prevented by so slow and cautious an addition of the acid, as is nearly inconsistent with the business of an extensive bleaching work. The presence of carbonate of lime may be discovered in manganese, by pouring, on a portion of this substance, nitric acid diluted with 8 or 10 parts of water. If the manganese be good, no effervescence will ensue, nor will the acid dissolve any thing ; but, if carbonate of lime be present, it will be taken up by the acid. To the solution add a sufficient quantity of carbonate of potash to precipitate the lime, wash the sediment with water, and dry it. Its weight will show how much chalk the manganese under examination contained.

Another adulteration of manganese, that may, perhaps, be sometimes practised, is the addition of some ores of iron. This impurity is less easily discovered. But if the iron be in such a state of oxydation as to be soluble in muriatic acid, the following process may discover it. Dissolve a portion, with the assistance of heat, in concentrated muriatic acid, dilute the solution largely with distilled water, and add a solution of crystallized carbonate of potash. The manganese will remain suspended, by the excess of carbonic acid, on mixing the two solutions, but the iron will be precipitated in the state of a coloured oxide.

From an observation of Klaproth (Essays, I. p. 572.) it appears that oxides of iron and manganese are separable by nitrous acid with the addition of sugar, which takes up the manganese only.

CHAP. IV.

APPLICATION OF CHEMICAL TESTS TO THE USES OF THE
FARMER AND COUNTRY GENTLEMAN.

The benefits that might be derived from the union of chemical skill, with the extensive observation of agricultural facts, are, perhaps, incalculable. At present, however, the state of knowledge among farmers is not such as to enable them to reap much advantage from chemical experiments; and the chemist has, himself, scarcely ever opportunities of applying his knowledge to practical purposes in this way. It may, perhaps, however, be of use, to offer a few brief directions for the analysis of marls, lime-stones, &c.

SECT. I.

Lime.

It is impossible to lay down any general rules respecting the fitness of lime for the purposes of agriculture; because much must depend on the peculiarities of soil, exposure, and other circumstances. Hence a species of lime may be extremely well adapted for one kind of land and not for another. All that can be accomplished by chemical means is to ascertain the degree of purity of the lime, and to infer, from this, to what kind of soil it is best

adapted. Thus a lime, which contains much argillaceous earth, is better adapted than a purer one to dry and gravelly soils ; and stiff clayey lands require a lime as free as possible from the argillaceous ingredient.

To determine the purity of lime, let a given weight be dissolved in diluted muriatic acid. Let a little excess of acid be added, that no portion may remain undissolved owing to the deficiency of the solvent. Dilute with distilled water ; let the insoluble part, if any, subside, and the clear liquor be decanted. Wash the sediment with farther portions of water, and pour it upon a filter previously weighed. Dry the filter, and ascertain its increase of weight, which will indicate how much insoluble matter the quantity of lime submitted to experiment contained. It is easy to judge by the external qualities of the insoluble portion, whether argillaceous earth abounds in its composition.

There is one earth, however, lately found in several lime-stones, which is highly injurious to the vegetation of plants, and is not discoverable by the foregoing process, being, equally with lime, soluble in muriatic acid. This earth is magnesia, which, by direct experiments, has been ascertained to be extremely noxious to plants. Mr. Tennant, the gentleman to whom we owe this fact, was informed, that in the neighbourhood of Doncaster two kinds of lime were employed, one of which it was necessary to use very sparingly, and to spread very evenly ; for it was said, that a large proportion, instead of increasing, diminished the fertility of the soil ; and that, whenever a heap of it was left in one spot, all fertility was prevented for many years. Fifty or sixty bushels on an acre were considered to be as much as could be used with advantage. The other sort of lime, which was obtained from a village near Ferrybridge, though considerably dearer, from the distant carriage, was more frequently employed, on account of its superior utility. A large quantity was never found to be injurious ; and the spots, which were covered with it, instead of being rendered barren, became remarkably fertile. On examining the composition of these two species of lime, the fertilizing one proved to consist entirely of calcareous earth, and the noxious one of three parts lime and two magnesia.

The presence of magnesia in lime proved, on farther in-

vestigation, to be a very common occurrence. The magnesian lime-stone appears to extend for 30 or 40 miles from a little south-west of Worksop, in Nottinghamshire, to near Ferrybridge, in Yorkshire, and it has also been found at Breedon and Matlock, in Derbyshire.

The magnesian lime-stone, according to Mr. Tennant, may easily be distinguished from that which is purely calcareous, by the slowness of its solution in acids, which is so considerable, that even the softest kind of the former is much longer in dissolving than marble. It has also frequently a crystallized structure, and sometimes, though not always, small black dots may be seen dispersed through it. In the countries where this lime-stone is found, the lime is generally distinguished, from its effects in agriculture, by the farmers, as *hot* lime, in opposition to the purely calcareous, which they term *mild*.

To ascertain, by chemical means, the composition of a lime or lime-stone suspected to contain magnesia, the following is the easiest, though not the most accurate, process. Procure a Florence flask, clean it well from oil by a little soap-lees or salt of tartar and quick-lime mixed, and break it off, about the middle of the body, by setting fire to a string tied round it and moistened with oil of turpentine. Into the bottom part of this flask put 100 grains of the lime or lime-stone, and pour on it, by degrees, half an ounce of strong sulphuric acid. On each affusion of acid a violent effervescence will ensue; when this ceases, stir the acid and lime together with a small glass tube, or rod, and place the flask in an iron pan, filled with sand. Set it over the fire, and continue the heat till the mass is quite dry. Scrape off the dry mass, weigh it, and put it into a wine-glass, which may be filled up with water. Stir the mixture, and when it has stood half an hour, pour the whole on a filtering-paper, placed on a funnel, and previously weighed. Wash the insoluble part with water, as it lies on the filter, and add the washings to the filtered liquor. To this liquor add a solution of half an ounce of salt of tartar in water, when, if magnesia be present, a very copious white sediment will ensue, if lime only, merely a slight milkiness. In the former case, heat the liquor, by setting it in a tea-cup near the fire; let the sediment subside; pour off the clear liquor, which may be thrown away, and wash the

white powder repeatedly with warm water. Then pour it on a filter of paper, the weight of which is known, dry it, and weigh. The result, if the limestone has been submitted to experiment, shows how much carbonate of magnesia was contained in the original stone; or, deducting 60 per cent. how much pure magnesia 100 parts of the limestone contained. If the burnt lime has been used, deduct from the weight of the precipitate 60 per cent. and the remainder will give the weight of the magnesia in each 100 grains of the burnt lime.

SECT. II.

Analysis of Marls.

The ingredient of marls, on which their fitness for agricultural purposes depends, is the carbonate of lime. It is owing to the presence of this earth that marls effervesce on the addition of acids, which is one of their distinguishing characters. In ascertaining whether an effervescence takes place, let the marl be put into a glass, partly filled with water, which will expel a portion of air contained mechanically in the marl, and thus obviate one source of fallacy. When the marl is thoroughly penetrated by the water, add a little muriatic acid, or spirit of salt. If a discharge of air should ensue, the marly nature of the earth is sufficiently established.

To find the composition of a marl, pour a few ounces of diluted muriatic acid into a Florence flask, place them in a scale, and let them be balanced. Then reduce a few ounces of dry marl into powder, and let this powder be carefully and gradually thrown into the flask, until, after repeated additions, no farther effervescence is perceived. Let the remainder of the powdered marl be weighed, by which the quantity projected will be known. Let the balance be then restored. The difference of weight between the quantity projected and that requisite to restore the balance, will show the weight of air lost during effervescence. If the loss amount to 13 per cent. of the quantity of marl projected, or from 13 to 32 per cent.

the marl assayed is calcareous marl, or marl rich in calcareous earth.

Clayey marls, or those in which the argillaceous ingredient prevails, lose only 8 or 10 per cent. of their weight by this treatment, and sandy marls about the same proportion. The presence of much argillaceous earth may be judged by drying the marl, after being washed with spirit of salt, when it will harden and form a brick.

To determine, with still greater precision, the quantity of calcareous earth in a marl, let the solution in muriatic acid be filtered, and mixed with a solution of carbonate of potash, till no farther precipitation appears. Let the sediment subside, wash it well with water, lay it on a filter, previously weighed, and dry it. The weight of the dry mass will show how much carbonate of lime the quantity of marl submitted to experiment contained.

SECT. III.

Analysis of Soils.

The following rules, for determining the composition of a soil, are copied from a Memoir, presented by Mr. Davy to the Board of Agriculture.

1. Utility of Investigations relating to the Analysis of Soils.

The methods of improving lands are immediately connected with the knowledge of the chemical nature of soils, and experiments on their composition appear capable of many useful applications.

The importance of this subject has been already felt by some very able cultivators of science; many useful facts and observations, with regard to it, have been furnished by Mr. Young; it has been examined by Lord Dundonald, in his treatise on the Connexion of Chemistry with Agriculture, and by Mr. Kirwan in his excellent essay on Manures; but the inquiry is still far from being exhausted, and new methods of elucidating it are almost

continually offered, in consequence of the rapid progress of chemical discovery.

In the following pages I shall have the honour of laying before the Board, an account of those methods of analysing soils which appear most precise and simple, and most likely to be useful to the practical farmer; they are founded partly upon the labours of the gentlemen, whose names have been just mentioned, and partly upon some later improvements.

2. *Of the Substances found in Soils.*

The substances which are found in soils, are certain mixtures or combinations of some of the primitive earths, animal and vegetable matter in a decomposing state, certain saline compounds, and the oxide of iron. These bodies always retain water, and exist in very different proportions in different lands; and the end of analytical experiments is the detection of their quantities and mode of union.

The *earths* found in common soils are principally silex, or the earth of flints, alumine, or the pure matter of clay, lime, or calcareous earth, and magnesia.

Silex, or the earth of flints, when perfectly pure, appears in the form of a white powder, which is incombustible, infusible, insoluble in water, and not acted upon by common acids; it is the substance which constitutes the principal part of rock crystal; it composes a considerable part of hard gravelly soils, of hard sandy soils, and of hard stony lands.

Alumine, or pure clay, in its perfect state is white like silex; it adheres strongly to the tongue, is incombustible, insoluble in water, but soluble in acids, and in fixed alkaline menstrua. It abounds most in clayey soils and clayey loams; but even in the smallest particles of these soils it is usually united to silex and oxide of iron.

Lime is the substance well known in its pure state under the name of quicklime. It always exists in soils in combination, and that principally with fixed air or carbonic acid, when it is called carbonate of lime; a substance which in the most compact form constitutes marble, and in its looser form chalk. Lime, when combined

with sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol), produces sulphate of lime (gypsum), and with phosphoric acid, phosphate of lime. The carbonate of lime, mixed with other substances, composes chalky soils and marls, and it is found in soft sandy soils.

Magnesia, when pure, appears as white, and in a lighter powder, than any of the other earths; it is soluble in acid, but not in alkaline menstrua; it is rarely found in soils; when it does exist, it is either in combination with carbonic acid, or with silex and alumine.

Animal decomposing matter exists in very different states, according as the substances from which it is produced are different; it contains much carbonaceous substance; and may be principally resolved by heat into this substance, volatile alkali, inflammable æriform products, and carbonic acid; it is principally found in lands that have been lately manured.

Vegetable decomposing matter is likewise very various in kind, it contains usually more carbonaceous substance than animal matter, and differs from it in the results of its decomposition, principally in not producing volatile alkali; it forms a great proportion of all peats; it abounds in rich mould, and is found in larger or smaller quantities in all lands.

The *saline compounds* found in soils are very few, and in quantities so small, that they are rarely to be discovered. They are principally muriate of soda (common salt), sulphate of magnesia (Epsom salt), and muriate and sulphate of potash, nitrate of lime, and the mild alkalies.

The *oxide of iron* is the same with the rust produced by exposing iron to the air and water; it is found in all soils, but is most abundant in yellow and red clays, and in yellow and red silicious sands.

A more minute account of these different substances would be incompatible with the object of this paper. A full description of their properties and agencies may be found in the elementary books on chemistry, and particularly in the *System of Chemistry* by Dr. Thomson (2d Edit.); and in Henry's *Epitome of Chemistry*.

3. *Instruments required for the Analysis of Soils.*

The really important instruments required for the analysis of soils are few, and but little expensive. They are a balance capable of containing a quarter of a pound of common soil, and capable of turning when loaded, with a grain; a series of weights from a quarter of a pound Troy to a grain; a wire sieve, sufficiently coarse to admit a pepper corn through its apertures; an Argand lamp and stand; some glass bottles; Hessian crucibles; porcelain, or queen's ware evaporating basons; a Wedgwood pestle and mortar; some filters made of half a sheet of blotting paper, folded so as to contain a pint of liquid, and greased at the edges; a bone knife, and an apparatus for collecting and measuring æriform fluids.

The chemical substances, or re-agents required for separating the constituent parts of the soil, are muriatic acid (spirit of salt,) sulphuric acid, pure volatile alkali dissolved in water, solution of prussiate of potash, soap lye, solution of carbonate of ammoniac, of muriate of ammonia, solution of neutral carbonate of potash, and nitrate of ammonia. An account of the nature of these bodies, and their effects, may be found in the chemical works already noticed; and the re-agents are sold, together with the instruments mentioned above, by Mr. Knight, Foster Lane, Cheapside, arranged in an appropriate chest.

4. *Mode of collecting Soils for Analysis.*

In cases when the general nature of the soil of a field is to be ascertained, specimens of it should be taken from different places, two or three inches below the surface, and examined as to the similarity of their properties. It sometimes happens, that upon plains the whole of the upper stratum of the land is of the same kind, and in this case, one analysis will be sufficient; but in vallies, and near the beds of rivers, there are very great differences, and it now and then occurs that one part of a field is calcareous, and another part silicious; and in

this case, and in analogous cases, the portions different from each other should be separately submitted to experiment.

Soils when collected, if they cannot be immediately examined, should be preserved in phials quite filled with them, and closed with ground glass stoppers.

The quantity of soil most convenient for a perfect analysis, is from two to four hundred grains. It should be collected in dry weather, and exposed to the atmosphere till it becomes dry to the touch.

The specific gravity of a soil, or the relation of its weight to that of water, may be ascertained by introducing into a phial, which will contain a known quantity of water, equal volumes of water and of soil; and this may be easily done by pouring in water till it is half full, and then adding the soil till the fluid rises to the mouth; the difference between the weight of the soil and that of the water, will give the result. Thus if the bottle contains four hundred grains of water, and gains two hundred grains when half filled with water and half with soil, the specific gravity of the soil will be 2, that is, it will be twice as heavy as water, and if it gained one hundred and sixty-five grains, its specific gravity would be 1.625, water being 1000.

It is of importance, that the specific gravity of a soil should be known, as it affords an indication of the quantity of animal and vegetable matter it contains; these substances being always most abundant in the lighter soils.

The other physical properties of soils should likewise be examined before the analysis is made, as they denote, to a certain extent, their composition, and serve as guides in directing the experiments. Thus silicious soils are generally rough to the touch, and scratch glass when rubbed upon it; aluminous soils adhere strongly to the tongue, and emit a strong earthy smell when breathed on; and calcareous soils are soft, and much less adhesive than aluminous soils.

V. Mode of ascertaining the Quantity of Water of Absorption in Soils.

Soils, though as dry as they can be made by continued exposure to air, in all cases still contain a considerable quantity of water, which adheres with great obstinacy to the earths and animal and vegetable matter, and can only be driven off from them by a considerable degree of heat. The first process of analysis is, to free the given weight of soil from as much of this water as possible, without in other respects affecting its composition; and this may be done by heating it for ten or twelve minutes over an Argand's lamp, in a bason of porcelain, to a temperature equal to 300* Fahrenheit; and in case a thermometer is not used, the proper degree may be easily ascertained, by keeping a piece of wood in contact with the bottom of the dish; as long as the colour of the wood remains unaltered, the heat is not too high; but when the wood begins to be charred, the process must be stopped. A small quantity of water will perhaps remain in the soil even after this operation, but it always affords useful comparative results; and if a higher temperature were employed, the vegetable or animal matter would undergo decomposition, and in consequence the experiment be wholly unsatisfactory.

The loss of weight in the process should be carefully noted; and when in four hundred grains of soil it reaches as high as 50, the soil may be considered as in the greatest degree absorbent, and retentive of water, and will generally be found to contain a large proportion of aluminous earth. When the loss is only from 20 to 10, the land may be considered as only slightly absorbent and retentive, and the silicious earth as most abundant.

* In several experiments, in which this process has been carried on by distillation, I have found the water that came over pure, and no sensible quantity of other volatile matter was produced.

VI. Of the Separation of Stones, Gravel, and vegetable Fibres, from Soils.

None of the loose stones, gravel, or large vegetable fibres, should be divided from the pure soil till after the water is drawn off; for these bodies are themselves often highly absorbent and retentive, and in consequence influence the fertility of the land. The next process, however, after that of heating, should be their separation, which may be easily accomplished by the sieve, after the soil has been gently bruised in a mortar. The weights of the vegetable fibres or wood, and of the gravel and stones, should be separately noted down, and the nature of the last ascertained; if calcareous, they will effervesce with acids; if silicious, they will be sufficiently hard to scratch glass; and if of the common aluminous class of stones, they will be soft, easily scratched with a knife, and incapable of effervescing with acids.

VII. Separation of the Sand and Clay, or Loam, from each other.

The greater number of soils, besides gravel and stones, contain larger or smaller proportions of sand of different degrees of fineness; and it is a necessary operation, the next in the process of analysis, to detach them from the parts in a state of more minute division, such as clay, loam, marl, and vegetable and animal matter. This may be effected in a way sufficiently accurate, by agitation of the soil in water. In this case, the coarse sand will generally separate in a minute, and the finer in two or three minutes, whilst the minutely divided earthy, animal, or vegetable matter, will remain in a state of mechanical suspension for a much longer time; so that, by pouring the water from the bottom of the vessel, after one, two, or three minutes, the sand will be principally separated from the other substances, which, with the water containing them, must be poured into a filter, and after the water has passed through, collected, dried, and weighed. The sand must likewise be weighed, and their respective quantities noted down. The water of lixivia-

tion must be preserved, as it will be found to contain the saline matter, and the soluble animal or vegetable matters, if any exist in the soil.

VIII. *Examination of the Sand.*

By the process of washing and filtration, the soil is separated into two portions, the most important of which is generally the finely divided matter. A minute analysis of the sand is seldom or never necessary, and its nature may be detected in the same manner as that of the stones or gravel. It is always either silicious sand, or calcareous sand, or a mixture of both. If it consist wholly of carbonate of lime, it will be rapidly soluble in muriatic acid, with effervescence; but if it consist partly of this substance, and partly of silicious matter, the respective quantities may be ascertained by weighing the residuum after the action of the acid, which must be applied till the mixture has acquired a sour taste, and has ceased to effervesce. This residuum is the silicious part: it must be washed, dried, and heated strongly in a crucible; the difference between the weight of it and the weight of the whole, indicates the proportion of calcareous sand.

IX. *Examination of the finely divided Matter of Soils, and Mode of detecting mild Lime and Magnesia.*

The finely divided matter of the soil is usually very compound in its nature; it sometimes contains all the four primitive earths of soils, as well as animal and vegetable matter; and to ascertain the proportions of these with tolerable accuracy, is the most difficult part of the subject.

The first process to be performed, in this part of the analysis, is the exposure of the fine matter of the soil to the action of the muriatic acid. This substance should be poured upon the earthy matter in an evaporating basin, in a quantity equal to twice the weight of the earthy matter, but diluted with double its volume of water. The mixture should be often stirred, and suffered to re-

main for an hour, or an hour and a half, before it is examined.

If any carbonate of lime, or of magnesia, exist in the soil, they will have been dissolved in this time by the acid, which sometimes takes up likewise a little oxide of iron, but very seldom any alumine.

The fluid should be passed through a filter; the solid matter collected, washed with rain water, dried at a moderate heat, and weighed. Its loss will denote the quantity of solid matter taken up. The washings must be added to the solution, which, if not sour to the taste, must be made so by the addition of fresh acid, when a little solution of common prussiate of potash must be mixed with the whole. If a blue precipitate occurs, it denotes the presence of oxide of iron, and the solution of the prussiate must be dropped in till no farther effect is produced. To ascertain its quantity, it must be collected in the same manner as other solid precipitates, and heated red; the result is oxide of iron.

Into the fluid, freed from oxide of iron, a solution of neutralized carbonate of potash must be poured till all effervescence ceases in it, and till its taste and smell indicate a considerable excess of alkaline salt.

The precipitate that falls down is carbonate of lime; it must be collected on the filter, and dried at a heat below that of redness.

The remaining fluid must be boiled for a quarter of an hour, when the magnesia, if any exist, will be precipitated from it, combined with carbonic acid, and its quantity is to be ascertained in the same manner as that of the carbonate of lime.

If any minute proportion of alumine should, from peculiar circumstances, be dissolved by the acid, it will be found in the precipitate with the carbonate of lime, and it may be separated from it by boiling for a few minutes with soap-lye, sufficient to cover the solid matter. —This substance dissolves alumine, without acting upon carbonate of lime.

Should the finely divided soil be sufficiently calcareous to effervesce very strongly with acids, a very simple method may be adopted for ascertaining the quantity of carbonate of lime, and one sufficiently accurate in all common cases.

Carbonate of lime, in all its states, contains a determinate proportion of carbonic acid, *i. e.* about 45 per cent.; so that when the quantity of this elastic fluid, given out by any soil during the solution of its calcareous matter in an acid, is known, either in weight or measure, the quantity of carbonate of lime may be easily discovered.

When the process by diminution of weight is employed, two parts of the acid, and one part of the matter of the soil, must be weighed in two separate bottles, and very slowly mixed together till the effervescence ceases; the difference between their weight before and after the experiment, denotes the quantity of carbonic acid lost; for every four grains and a half of which, ten grains of carbonate of lime must be estimated.

The best method of collecting the carbonic acid, so as to discover its volume, is by the pneumatic apparatus, the construction and application of which is described at the end of this paper. The estimation is, for every ounce measure of carbonic acid, two grains of carbonate of lime.

X. Mode of ascertaining the Quantity of insoluble finely divided Animal and Vegetable Matter.

After the fine matter of the soil has been acted upon by muriatic acid, the next process is to ascertain the quantity of finely divided insoluble animal and vegetable matter that it contains.

This may be done with sufficient precision, by heating it to strong ignition in a crucible over a common fire till no blackness remains in the mass. It should be often stirred with a metallic wire, so as to expose new surfaces continually to the air; the loss of weight that it undergoes denotes the quantity of the substance that it contains destructible by fire and air.

It is not possible to ascertain whether this substance is wholly animal or vegetable matter, or a mixture of both. When the smell emitted during the incineration is similar to that of burnt feathers, it is a certain indication of some animal matter; and a copious blue flame at the time of ignition, almost always denotes a considerable

proportion of vegetable matter. In cases when the experiment is needed to be very quickly performed, the destruction of the decomposable substances may be assisted by the agency of nitrate of ammoniac, which at the time of ignition, may be thrown gradually upon the heated mass, in the quantity of twenty grains for every hundred of residual soil. It affords the principle necessary to the combustion of the animal and vegetable matter, which it causes to be converted into elastic fluids; and is itself at the same time decomposed and lost.

XI. Mode of separating Aluminous and Silicious Matter, and Oxide of Iron.

The substances remaining after the decomposition of the vegetable and animal matter, are generally minute particles of earthy matter, containing usually alumine and silex with combined oxide of iron.

To separate these from each other, the solid matter should be boiled for two or three hours with sulphuric acid, diluted with four times its weight of water; the quantity of the acid should be regulated by the quantity of solid residuum to be acted on, allowing for every hundred grains two drachms, or one hundred and twenty grains of acid.

The substance remaining after the action of the acid, may be considered as silicious; and it must be separated, and its weight ascertained, after washing and drying in the usual manner.

The alumine and the oxide of iron, if any exist, are both dissolved by the sulphuric acid; they may be separated by carbonate of ammoniac, added to excess; it throws down the alumine, and leaves the oxide of iron in solution, and this substance may be separated from the liquid by boiling.

Should any magnesia and lime have escaped solution in the muriatic acid, they will be found in the sulphuric acid; this, however, is scarcely ever the case; but the process for detecting them and ascertaining their quantities, is the same in both instances.

The method of analysis by sulphuric acid, is sufficiently precise for all usual experiments; but if very great ac-

curacy be an object, dry carbonate of potash must be employed as the agent, and the residuum of the incineration must be heated red for a half hour, with four times its weight of this substance, in a crucible of silver, or of well baked porcelain. The mass obtained must be dissolved in muriatic acid, and the solution evaporated till it is nearly solid; distilled water must then be added, by which the oxide of iron and all the earths, except silex, will be dissolved in combination as muriates. The silex, after the usual process of lixiviation, must be heated red; the other substances may be separated in the same manner as from the muriatic and sulphuric solutions.

This process is the one usually employed by chemical philosophers for the analysis of stones.

XII. Mode of discovering Soluble Animal and Vegetable Matter, and Saline Matter.

If any saline matter, or soluble vegetable or animal matter, is suspected in the soil, it will be found in the water of lixiviation used for separating the sand.

This water must be evaporated to dryness in an appropriate dish, at a heat below its boiling point.

If the solid matter obtained is of a brown colour, and inflammable, it may be considered as partly vegetable extract. If its smell, when exposed to heat, be strong and fetid, it contains animal mucilaginous or gelatinous substance; if it be white and transparent, it may be considered as principally saline matter. Nitrate of potash (nitre) or nitrate of lime, is indicated in this saline matter, by its scintillating with a burning coal. Sulphate of magnesia may be detected by its bitter taste; and sulphate of potash produces no alteration in solution of carbonate of ammoniac, but precipitates solution of muriate of barytes.

XIII. Mode of detecting Sulphate of Lime (Gypsum) and Phosphate of Lime in Soils.

Should sulphate or phosphate of lime be suspected in the entire soil, the detection of them requires a particular

process upon it. A given weight of it, for instance four hundred grains, must be heated red for half an hour in a crucible mixed with one-third of powdered charcoal. The mixture must be boiled for a quarter of an hour, in a half pint of water, and the fluid collected through the filter, and exposed for some days to the atmosphere in an open vessel. If any soluble quantity of sulphate of lime (gypsum) existed in the soil, a white precipitate will gradually form in the fluid, and the weight of it will indicate the proportion.

Phosphate of lime, if any exist, may be separated from the soil after the process for gypsum. Muriatic acid must be digested upon the soil, in quantity more than sufficient to saturate the soluble earths; the solution must be evaporated, and water poured upon the solid matter. This fluid will dissolve the compounds of earths with the muriatic acid, and leave the phosphate of lime untouched.

It would not fall within the limits assigned to this paper, to detail any processes for the detection of substances which may be accidentally mixed with the matters of soils. Manganese is now and then found in them, and compounds of the barytic earth; but these bodies appear to bear little relation to fertility or barrenness, and the search for them would make the analysis much more complicated without rendering it more useful.

XIV. *Statement of Results and Products.*

When the examination of a soil is completed, the products should be classed, and their quantities added together, and if they nearly equal the original quantity of soil, the analysis may be considered as accurate. It must, however, be noticed, that when phosphate or sulphate of lime are discovered by the independent process XIII., a correction must be made for the general process, by subtracting a sum equal to their weight from the quantity of carbonate of lime, obtained by precipitation from the muriatic acid.

In arranging the products, the form should be in the order of the experiments by which they are obtained.

Thus 400 grains of a good silicious sandy soil may be supposed to contain

	Grains.
Of water of absorption - - - - -	18
Of loose stones and gravel, principally silicious -	42
Of undecomposed vegetable fibres - -	10
Of fine silicious sand - - - - -	200
Of minutely divided matter separated by filtration, and consisting of	
Carbonate of lime - - - - -	25
Carbonate of magnesia - - - - -	4
Matter destructible by heat, principally vegetable - - - - -	10
Silex - - - - -	40
Alumine - - - - -	32
Oxide of iron - - - - -	4
Soluble matter, principally sulphate of potash and vegetable extract - -	5
Gypsum - - - - -	3
Phosphate of lime - - - - -	2
	<hr/> 125
Amount of all the products	395
Loss - - - - -	5

In this instance the loss is supposed small; but in general, in actual experiments, it will be found much greater, in consequence of the difficulty of collecting the whole quantities of the different precipitates; and when it is within thirty for four hundred grains, there is no reason to suspect any want of due precision in the processes.

XV. This general Method of Analysis may, in many Cases, be much simplified.

When the experimenter is become acquainted with the use of the different instruments, the properties of the reagents, and the relations between the external and chemical qualities of soils, he will seldom find it necessary to perform, in any one case, all the processes that have been described. When his soil, for instance, contains no notable proportion of calcareous matter, the action of

the muriatic acid IX. may be omitted. In examining peat soils, he will principally have to attend to the operation by fire and air X. ; and in the analysis of chalks and loams, he will often be able to omit the experiment by sulphuric acid XI.

In the first trials that are made by persons unacquainted with chemistry, they must not expect much precision of result. Many difficulties will be met with ; but, in overcoming them, the most useful kind of practical knowledge will be obtained ; and nothing is so instructive in experimental science, as the detection of mistakes. The correct analyst ought to be well grounded in general chemical information ; but perhaps there is no better mode of gaining it, than that of attempting original investigations. In pursuing his experiments, he will be continually obliged to learn from books, the history of the substances he is employing or acting upon, and his theoretical ideas will be more valuable in being connected with practical operation, and acquired for the purpose of discovery.

XVI. On the Improvement of Soils, as connected with the Principle of their Composition.

In cases when a barren soil is examined with a view to its improvement, it ought, in all cases, if possible, to be compared with an extremely fertile soil in the same neighbourhood, and in a similar situation : the difference given by their analysis would indicate the methods of cultivation ; and thus the plan of improvement would be founded upon accurate scientific principles.

If the fertile soil contained a large quantity of sand, in proportion to the barren soil, the process of amelioration would depend simply upon a supply of this substance, and the method would be equally simple with regard to soils deficient in clay or calcareous matter.

In the application of clay, sand, loam, marl, or chalk, to lands, there are no particular chemical principles to be observed ; but when quick-lime is used, great care must be taken that it is not obtained from the magnesian limestone ; for in this case, as has been shewn by Mr.

Tennant, it is exceedingly injurious to land.* The magnesian limestone may be distinguished from the common limestone by its greater hardness, and by the length of time that it requires for its solution in acids ; and it may be analyzed by the process for carbonate of lime and magnesia, IX.

When the analytical comparison indicates an excess of vegetable matter, as the cause of sterility, it may be destroyed by much pulverization and exposure to air, by paring and burning, or the agency of lately made quicklime. And the defect of animal and vegetable matter must be supplied by animal or vegetable manure.

XVII. Sterile Soils in different Climates and Situations must differ in Composition.

The general indications of fertility and barrenness, as found by chemical experiments, necessarily must differ in different climates, and under different circumstances. The power of soils to absorb moisture, a principal essential to their productiveness, ought to be much greater in warm and dry countries, than in cold and moist ones ; and the quantity of fine aluminous earth they contain larger. Soils, likewise, that are situated on declivities, ought to be more absorbent than those in the same climate on plains or in vallies.† The productiveness of soils must likewise be influenced by the nature of the subsoil, or the earthy or stony strata on which they rest ; and this circumstance ought to be particularly attended to, in considering their chemical nature, and the system of improvement. Thus a sandy soil may sometimes owe its fertility to the power of the subsoil to retain water ; and an absorbent clayey soil may occasionally be prevented from being barren, in a moist climate, by the influence of a substratum of sand or gravel.

* Phil. Trans. for 1799, p. 305. This limestone is found abundantly in Yorkshire, Derbyshire, and Somersetshire.

† Kirwan, Trans. Irish Academy. Vol. V. p. 175.

XVIII. Of the Chemical Composition of fertile Corn Soils in this Climate.

Those soils that are most productive of corn, contain always certain proportions of aluminous and calcareous earth in a finely divided state, and a certain quantity of vegetable or animal matter.

The quantity of calcareous earth is however very various, and in some cases exceedingly small. A very fertile corn soil from Ormiston, in East Lothian, afforded me, in an hundred parts, only eleven parts of mild calcareous earth; it contained twenty-five parts of silicious sand; the finely divided clay amounted to forty-five parts. It lost nine in decomposed animal and vegetable matter, and four in water, and afforded indications of a small quantity of phosphate of lime.

This soil was of a very fine texture, and contained very few stones or vegetable fibres. It is not unlikely that its fertility was in some measure connected with the phosphate; for this substance is found in wheat, oats, and barley, and may be a part of their food.

A soil from the low lands of Somersetshire, celebrated for producing excellent crops of wheat and beans without manure, I found to consist of one-ninth of sand, chiefly silicious, and eight-ninths of calcareous marl, tinged with iron, and containing about five parts in the hundred of vegetable matter. I could not detect in it any phosphate or sulphate of lime, so that its fertility must have depended principally upon its power of attracting principles of vegetable nourishment from water and the atmosphere.*

Mr. Tillet, in some experiments made on the composition of soils at Paris, found that a soil composed of three-eighths of clay, two-eighths of river sand, and three-eighths of the parings of limestone, was very proper for wheat.

* This soil was sent to me by T. Poole, Esq of Nether Stowey. It is near the opening of the river Parret into the British Channel; but, I am told, is never overflowed.

XIX. Of the Composition of Soils proper for bulbous Roots and for Trees.

In general, bulbous roots require a soil much more sandy, and less absorbent, than the grasses. A very good potatoe soil, from Varfel, in Cornwall, afforded me seven-eighths of silicious sand; and its absorbent power was so small, that one hundred parts lost only two by drying at 400° Fahrenheit.

Plants and trees, the roots of which are fibrous and hard, and capable of penetrating deep into the earth, will vegetate to advantage in almost all common soils, which are moderately dry, and which do not contain a very great excess of vegetable matter.

I found the soil taken from a field at Sheffield-place, in Sussex, remarkable for producing flourishing oaks, to consist of six parts of sand, and one part of clay and finely divided matter; and one hundred parts of the entire soil, submitted to analysis, produced,

Water	-	-	-	3 parts
Silex	-	-	-	54
Alumine	-	-	-	28
Carbonate of lime	-	-	-	3
Oxide of iron	-	-	-	5
Decomposing vegetable matter				4
Loss	-	-	-	3

XX. Advantages of Improvements made by changing the Composition of Earthy parts of Soils.

From the great difference of the causes that influence the productiveness of lands, it is obvious, that, in the present state of science, no certain system can be devised for their improvement, independent of experiment; but there are few cases in which the labour of analytical trials will not be amply repaid by the certainty with which they denote the best methods of amelioration; and this will particularly happen, when the defect of composition is found in the proportions of the primitive earths.

In supplying animal or vegetable manure, a temporary

food only is provided for plants, which is in all cases exhausted by means of a certain number of crops; but when a soil is rendered of the best possible constitution and texture, with regard to its earthy parts, its fertility may be considered as permanently established. It becomes capable of attracting a very large portion of vegetable nourishment from the atmosphere, and of producing its crops with comparatively little labour and expence.

Description of the Apparatus for the Analysis of Soils.

Pl. IV. fig. 44. ; *a, b, c, d, e, f.* The different parts of the apparatus required for measuring the quantity of elastic fluid given out during the action of an acid on calcareous soils. *a.* Represents the bottle for containing the soil; *b,* the bottle containing the acid, furnished with a stop-cock; *c,* the tube connected with a flaccid bladder; *d, f,* the graduated measure; *e,* the bottle for containing the bladder. When this instrument is used, a given quantity of soil is introduced into *a*; *b,* is filled with muriatic acid, diluted with an equal quantity of water, and the stop-cock being closed, is connected with the upper orifice of *a*, which is ground to receive it. The tube *c,* is introduced into the lower orifice of *a*, and the bladder connected with it placed in its flaccid state in *e*, which is filled with water. The graduated measure is placed under the tube of *e*. When the stop-cock of *b* is turned, the acid flows into *a*, and acts upon the soil; the elastic fluid generated passes through *c* into the bladder, and displaces a quantity of water in *e* equal to it in bulk, and this water flows through the tube into the graduated measure; the water in which gives, by its volume, the indication of the proportion of carbonic acid disengaged from the soil; for every ounce measure of which, two grains of carbonate of lime may be estimated.

CHAP. V.

MISCELLANEOUS USES OF CHEMICAL RE-AGENTS.

1. *Removal of ink stains.* The stains of ink on cloth, paper, or wood, may be removed by almost all acids; but those acids are to be preferred which are least likely to injure the texture of the stained substance. The muriatic acid, diluted with five or six times its weight of water, may be applied to the spot, and, after a minute or two, may be washed off, repeating its application as often as may be found necessary. But the vegetable acids are attended with less risk, and are equally effectual. A solution of the oxalic, citric, or tartarous acids, in water, may be applied to the most delicate fabrics, without any danger of injuring them; and the same solutions discharge from paper, written, but not printed ink. Hence they may be employed in cleaning books, which have been defaced by writing on the margin, without impairing the text.

2. *Iron stains.* These may be occasioned either by ink stains, which, on the application of soap, are changed into iron stains, or by the direct contact of rusted iron.—They may be removed by diluted muriatic acid, or by one of the vegetable acids already mentioned. When suffered to remain long on cloth, they become extremely difficult to take out, because the iron, by repeated moistening with water and exposure to the air, acquires such an addition of oxygen as renders it insoluble in acids. I have found, however, that even these spots may be discharged, by applying first a solution of an alkaline sul-

phuret, which must be well washed from the cloth, and afterwards a liquid acid. The sulphuret, in this case, extracts part of the oxygen from the iron, and renders it soluble in dilute acids.

3. *Fruit and wine stains.* These are best removed by a watery solution of the oxygenized muriatic acid, (see Chap. XIV. Sec. 1.), or by that of oxygenized muriate of potash or lime, to which a little sulphuric acid has been added. The stained spot may be steeped in one of these solutions till it is discharged; but the solution can only be applied with safety to white goods, because the uncombined oxygenized acid discharges all printed and dyed colours. A convenient mode of applying the oxygenized acid, easily practicable by persons who have not the apparatus for saturating water with the gas, is as follows; Put about a table-spoonful of muriatic acid (spirit of salt) into a tea-cup, and add to it about a tea-spoonful of powdered manganese. Then set this cup in a larger one filled with hot water. Moisten the stained spot with water, and expose it to the fumes that arise from the tea-cup. If the exposure be continued a sufficient length of time, the stain will disappear.

Stains on silk may be removed by a watery solution of sulphurous acid, or by the fumes of burning sulphur.

4. *Spots of grease* may be removed by a diluted solution of pure potash; but this must be cautiously applied, to prevent injury to the cloth. Stains of *white wax*, which sometimes fall upon the clothes from wax candles, are removable by spirit of turpentine or sulphuric ether.—The marks of *white paint* may also be discharged by the last mentioned agents.

APPENDIX I.



DESCRIPTION OF THE PLATES.

PLATE I.

Fig. 1. (*a*) *A plain retort*, the neck of which is shewn introduced a proper length into the mouth of a plain receiver *b*. The dotted lines at *c* shew the receiver with the addition of a tubulure, into which either a stopper, or bent glass tube, may be occasionally fixed.

Fig. 2. *A glass alembic*; *a* the body, and *b* the head, which are ground so as to fit accurately, and may be separated when necessary. The head *b* is so shaped, that any liquid, which may be condensed, collects into a channel, and is carried by the pipe *c* into a receiver.

Fig. 3. *A separator*, for separating liquids of different specific gravities. It is furnished with a ground stopper at *a*, and a glass stop-cock at *b*. The vessel is filled with the liquids that are to be separated (oil and water for example) which are allowed to stand till the lighter has completely risen to the top. The stopper *a* is then removed, and the cock *b* opened, through which the heavier liquid descends; the cock being shut, as soon as the lighter one is about to flow out.

Fig. 4. A glass vessel, termed a *matrafs*, useful for effecting the solution of bodies, which require heat before they can be dissolved, or long continued digestion, see Chap. I. Sec. II. The upper extremity of the long neck generally remains cool, and allows the vessel and its contents to be shaken occasionally.

Fig. 5. A glass bottle with a very thin bottom, and a projecting ring round the neck for suspending it over a lamp. These are useful for effecting *solutions* on a small scale.

Fig. 6. An apparatus, contrived by Mr. Pepys, for ascertaining the quantity of carbonic acid discharged from any substance by the addition of an acid. It consists of a bottle, closed by a ground stopper. This stopper is perforated, and forms the lower part of a tube, which is twisted into the shape of a still-worm. In this worm, any water that escapes along with the gas, is condensed, and falls down again into the bottle. The experiment is made

precisely as described, Chap. X. Sec. iv. Art. 6.; and the loss of weight is determined at the close of the effervescence.

Fig. 7. Mr Leslie's *differential Thermometer* described, Chap. III. Sec. i.

Fig. 8. *a*, an *air thermometer*, for ascertaining the temperature of liquids. It consists of a bottle, partly filled with any coloured liquid, and partly with air, a glass tube of small bore, open at both ends, being either cemented or hermetically sealed into the bottle, so that its lower extremity may nearly touch the bottom of the bottle. The expansion of the included air, on the application of heat, drives the coloured liquid up the tube, and to an extent which may be measured by the application of a scale. The fig. *b* is another variety of the same instrument, described Chap. III. Sec. i.

Fig. 9. The original *air Thermometer of Sanctorio*, see Chap. III. Sec. i.

Fig. 10. A bent funnel for introducing liquids into retorts, without soiling their necks.

Fig. 11. An *adapter*. The wider end admits the neck of a retort; and the narrower is passed into the mouth of a receiver.

Fig. 12. A section of an evaporating dish of Wedgwood's ware.

Fig. 13. (*a*) a *tubulated retort* luted to (*b*) a *gulled receiver*, the pipe of which enters the neck of a bottle (*c*) supported by a block of wood.

Fig. 14. A *bottle for ascertaining the specific gravity of liquids*. When filled up to a mark in the neck, with distilled water of a given temperature, it should hold 1000, 2000, or any even number of grains. The quantity, which it is found to contain, of any other liquid of the same temperature, shews the specific gravity of the latter. For example, if it hold 1000 grains of water, and 1850 of sulphuric acid, the specific gravity of the latter is to that of water as 1850 to 1000.

Fig. 15. A tube, blown in the middle into a ball, for dropping liquids. The ball is filled by the action of the mouth applied to the upper orifice, while the lower one is immersed in the liquid. To the former the finger is then applied; and on cautiously removing it, the liquid is expelled in drops.

Fig. 16. A glass jar, with a lip, for decanting fluids from precipitates.

PLATE II.

Fig. 17. An apparatus for procuring gases, without the possibility of their escaping into the room during the process, a circumstance which is of considerable importance, when the gas has an unpleasant smell or deleterious properties. Suppose that sulphuretted hydrogen gas is to be obtained from sulphuret of iron and diluted sulphuric acid. The sulphuret of iron, in coarse powder, is put into the body of the gas bottle *c*, with a proper quantity of water. The acid holder *a* is filled with the diluted acid, the cock *b* being shut, and is then fixed into the tubulure of the gas bottle, to which it is accurately adapted by grinding. The bent tube *d* being made to terminate under a receiver filled with, and inverted in water, the perforated cock *e* is gradually opened, in consequence of which the acid descends into the gas bottle; and acts on the sulphuret of iron. If it be found necessary to renew the acid, without disturbing the apparatus, this may be done as follows. The cock *b* being shut, the stopper, which closes the acid holder, may be removed, and fresh acid be poured in, through the aperture. This may be repeated as often as is found necessary. The acid holder may be advantageously adapted, also, to a retort for certain distillations, such as that of muriatic acid.

Fig. 18. A plain gas bottle with sigmoid tube, the end, which is received into the bottle, having a ground stopper accurately fitted to the neck.

For ordinary purposes (such as obtaining hydrogen gas from diluted sulphuric acid and iron filings) this apparatus answers perfectly well, and is much less costly. It is frequently made with a tubulure and glass stopper, and is then called a tubulated gas bottle.

Fig. 19. A gas funnel, useful in transferring any gas, from a wide-mouthed vessel into a jar of narrower diameter, or into a bottle. When employed for this purpose, it is held inverted, as shewn by the figure, the pipe being admitted into the aperture of the bottle or jar, which is filled with and inverted in water, and the gas being made to pass into it in bubbles.

Fig. 20. Dr. Hope's Eudiometer. The manner of using it has already been described, Chap. V. Sec. iv.

Fig. 21. A jar for receiving gases. Fig. 23. The same with a ground stopper.

Fig. 22. A gas receiver, into the neck of which is cemented a brass cap, with a female screw for receiving a stop-cock. The vessel *b* is a glass flask, which may be made to communicate with the interior of the jar *a*, by opening the cock. When the apparatus is used, it is necessary to employ two stop-cocks, and not one only, as represented by the figure. Supposing that the weight of any gas is to be ascertained, the flask *b* is exhausted, by screwing it on the transfer of an air-pump; and, if great accuracy be required, it is proper to enclose a gage in the vessel. Let the flask be weighed when exhausted; then screw it upon the top of the receiver, containing the gas which is to be weighed; and open the communication, observing, by using a graduated jar, how much gas has been admitted. Suppose this to be 50 cubic inches. By weighing the flask again when full, we determine the weight of 50 cubic inches of the gas under examination. The experiment should be made when the temperature of the room is 60°, and when the barometer stands at 29.8.

Fig. 24. An Eudiometer for trying the purity of a mixture of gases containing oxygen gas, by means of nitrous gas. The process has already been described, Chap. XII. Sec. ii. The instrument should be accompanied with a vial holding, when completely full, precisely a cubic inch.

Fig. 25. A wire stand, with a leaden foot, for the purpose of raising, above the surface of water within a jar, any substance which is to be exposed to the action of a gas.

Fig. 26. An apparatus for shewing that caloric exists in gases in a latent form. The application of it has been already described, Chap. V.

Fig. 27. A glass jar, partly filled with air, and partly with quicksilver, and standing inverted in quicksilver. The use of this figure is merely to illustrate the method of inferring the real from the apparent quantity of gas in a tube, when the quicksilver within is above the level of the fluid without, as explained, Chap. V. Sec. i.

Fig. 28 and 29. Tubes for exploding mixtures of hydrogen and other inflammable gases with oxygen gas, commonly termed the Eudiometer of Volta; see Chap. V. Sec. v.

PLATE III.

Fig. 30. The common form of a Woulfe's apparatus. In this figure the retort *a* is represented plain, but it is better to employ a tubulated one. The use of this apparatus has already been described, Chap. I. Sec. II.

Fig. 31. A modification of the apparatus, which has also been already described. In this figure, the mercurial trough is shewn with a jar standing inverted in it, for the purpose of receiving any gas that may escape condensation by water.

Fig. 33. Mr. Pepys' improvement of Woulfe's apparatus described, Chap. I. Sec. II.

In conversation with Mr. Murray of Edinburgh, I have learned, since the first chapter was printed, that the most simple, cheap, and manageable form of Woulfe's apparatus, is represented by Dr. Hamilton of London, in his translation of Berthollet's "Treatise on Dyeing." I have omitted also, in the enumeration of the varieties of this apparatus, to include an improvement of it, invented by Mr. Burkitt, and shewn by a plate, in the fifth volume of Nicholson's Journal, 4to.

PLATE IV.

Figs. 33. and 34. Cuthbertson's apparatus for exhibiting the composition of water, with the substitution of gazometers for the receivers originally employed by him. The apparatus has been described, Chap. VI. Sec. I. Fig. 34. is an enlarged view of the conical brass piece, which is cemented into the bottom of the receiver, and through which the gases are conveyed.

Fig. 35. A gazometer of the most simple and common construction; see Chap. V. Sec. I.

Fig. 36. A gas-holder, described in the same Section.

Fig. 37. A galvanic trough (See Chap. VI. Sec. II.) The tube *b* shews the arrangement for decomposing water. The upper wire may be hermetically sealed into the tube, and the lower one passed through a cork, which should have a small slit cut in it, to allow the water to escape in drops as the gas is produced.

Fig. 38. The manner in which a candle may be burned in oxygen gas; see Chap. V. Sec. II.

Fig. 39. The combustion of iron-wire in oxygen gas.

Fig. 40. Apparatus for decomposing water over red-hot iron or charcoal; see Chap. VI. Sec. II.

Fig. 41. A contrivance for shewing the diminution of hydrogen and oxygen gases by slow combustion; see Chap. V. Sec. V.

Fig. 42. A very simple and cheap contrivance for freezing quicksilver by muriate of lime and snow. The outer vessel of wood may be twelve and a half inches square, and seven inches deep. It should have a wooden cover, rabbetted in, and furnished with a handle. Within this is placed a tin vessel *bb*, standing on feet which are one-and-a-half inch high, and having a projection at the top, half-an-inch broad, and an inch deep, on which rests a shallow tin-pan *c*. Within the second vessel is a third *d*, made of untinned iron, and supported by feet two inches high. This vessel is four inches square, and is intended to contain the mercury. When the apparatus is used, a mixture of muriate of lime and snow is put into the outer vessel *a*, so as completely to surround the middle vessel *bb*. Into the latter, the vessel *d*, containing the quicksilver to be frozen, previously cooled down by a freezing mixture, is put; and this is immediately surrounded by a mixture of snow and muriate of lime, previously cooled to 0° Fahrenheit, by an artificial mixture of snow and common salt. The pan *c* is also filled with these materials, and the wooden cover is then put into its place. The vessels are now left, till the quicksilver is frozen. A more elegant, but more expensive apparatus, by Mr. Pepys, intended for the same purpose, is figured in an early volume of the Philosophical Magazine.

Fig. 43. A wire stand, consisting of an interior circle, and three straight pieces of wire proceeding from it in the same plane. Its use is noticed, Chap. V. Sec. II.

Fig. 44. Mr. Davy's apparatus for the analysis of soils, described in his paper, which is copied into the third part of this work.

PLATE V.

Fig. 45. Pictet's arrangement of an apparatus for shewing the radiation of caloric, unaccompanied by light ; see Chap. III. Sec. I.

Fig. 46. An oval copper boiler, for exhibiting the most important facts respecting latent caloric. The size of its different parts may be learned from the scale affixed to the plate. I am prevented, by distance from home, at the time of writing this part of the work, from stating the precise quantity which the boiler holds, and other particulars which it might have been proper to have mentioned. I apprehend, however, that the sketch, with the assistance of the scale, is abundantly sufficient to enable any intelligent workman to construct the apparatus. The collar-joint and stuffing box, however, it is indispensably necessary to describe, especially as the former article of apparatus is generally constructed on a bad plan.

Fig. 47. is a section, upon a larger scale, of the collar-joint at *b*, (Fig. 46.) made for the convenience of screwing together long or crooked metal tubes, without turning them round. *a* is a section of the end of one of the tubes, and *b* that of the other which is to be attached to it ; *c* is a collar which turns loose upon the shoulder of *a*, and screws upon *b*. By screwing this collar upon *b*, the end *c* of the tube *a* is brought to press upon the part *d* of the tube *b*, without turning round either of those tubes. If upon *d* be laid a ring of linen cloth soaked in boiled linseed-oil, the joint, when screwed up, (if tolerably well made) will be impervious to steam, as well as to water or air. The projection at *d* is for preserving the ring of cloth from being displaced, and for guiding the ends of both tubes, so as to meet properly.

Fig. 48. is a section of a socket, for fixing the stem of a thermometer into a boiler or a digester, where there is much heat and pressure ; *b* is a socket fixed on the outside of the boiler or digester, having a hole through it large enough to admit the bulk of the thermometer ; *a* is a plug which screws into *b*, having a hole through its centre large enough to admit only the stem of the thermometer ; *c c* is a loose round plate, concave on the upper side, having a hole through its centre, just sufficient also to admit the stem of the thermometer. When the instrument is to be inserted, the plug *a*, and the plate *c*, must both be taken out of the socket. The bulb is then passed through it. The plate *c* is next slipped over the stem, and dropped into its place. Some flax, soaked in linseed-oil, must next be wrapped round the stem, so as nearly to fill the socket. The plug *a* must then be screwed in, till the flax be compressed so as to make the whole sufficiently tight. The opposite surfaces of the plate *c*, and the plug *a*, are made concave, for the purpose of compressing the flax round the stem of the thermometer.

PLATE VI.

Fig. 49, 50, 51. Sections of crucibles.

Fig. 52. A muffle ; see Chap. I. Sec. II.

Fig. 53. Stands for raising the crucible above the bars of the grate ; *a* one adapted to Mr. Aikin's blast furnace ; *b* one of the common form.

Fig. 54. A skittle-shaped crucible.

Fig. 55. Mr. Aikin's portable blast furnace. It is composed of three parts, all made out of the common thin black-lead melting pots, sold in London for the use of the goldsmiths. The lower piece *c* is the bottom of one

of these pots, cut off so low as only to leave a cavity of about an inch, and ground smooth above and below. The outside diameter over the top is five and a half inches. The middle piece, or fire-place *d*, is a larger portion of a similar pot, with a cavity about six inches deep, and measuring seven and a half inches over the top, outside diameter, and perforated with six blast holes at the bottom. These two pots are all that are essentially necessary to the furnace for most operations, but when it is wished to heap up fuel above the top of a crucible contained within, and especially to protect the eyes from the intolerable glare of the fire when in full heat, an upper pot *b* is added, of the same dimensions as the middle one, and with a large opening in the side, cut to allow the exit of the smoke and flame. It has also an iron stem, with a wooden handle (an old chisel answers the purpose very well) for removing it occasionally.

The bellows, which are double (*a*), are firmly fixed, by a little contrivance which will take off and on, to a heavy stool, as represented in the plate; and their handle should be lengthened so as to make them work easier to the hand. To increase their force on particular occasions, a plate of lead may be firmly tied on the wood of the upper flap. The nozzle is received into a hole on the pot *c*, which conducts the blast into its cavity. From hence the air passes into the fire-place *d*, through six holes of the size of a large gimlet, drilled at equal distances through the bottom of the pot; and all converging in an inward direction, so that, if prolonged, they would meet about the centre of the upper part of the fire. Fig. 56. shows the distribution of these holes in the bottom. The large central hole is intended to receive the stand *s*, fig. 52., which serves for supporting the crucible.

No luting is necessary in using this furnace, so that it may be set up and taken down immediately. Coak, or common cinders, taken from the fire when the coal just ceases to blaze, sifted from the dust, and broken into very small pieces, forms the best fuel for higher heats. The fire may be kindled at first by a few lighted cinders, and a small quantity of wood-charcoal.

The heat which this little furnace will afford is so intense, that its power was, at first, discovered accidentally by the fusion of a thick piece of cast iron. The utmost heat procured by it was 167° of Wedgwood's pyrometer piece, which was withdrawn from a Hessian crucible, when actually sinking down in a state of porcellaneous fusion. A steady heat of 155° or 160° may be depended on if the fire be properly managed, and the bellows worked with vigour (See Philosophical Magazine, Vol. XVII. p. 166.)

By a letter from Mr. Aikin, I have learned, also, a convenient way of exhibiting, in a lecture, and performing at other times, the process of cupellation, by means of this furnace. It consists in causing a portion of the blast to be diverted from the fuel, and to pass through a crucible in which the cupel is placed. This arrangement supplies air; and the whole may be seen by a sloping tube, run through the cover of the crucible. Fig. 57. shows the furnace when used for this purpose; *a a* the furnace; *b* the perforated stopper for the central blast; *c c* a portion of earthen tube, through which the air passes, and is heated during this transit; *e* a piece of soft brick, perforated to admit the earthen tube *f*, which may be kept open for inspecting the process. No luting is required, except to join *f* to *c*.

FIG. 58. Knight's portable furnace, composed of strong iron plate, lined with fire-lute, the inside diameter six inches. *a* shows the grate; *b* the ash-pit door; *d* the door of the fire placed when used as a sand heat; *e e* two holes opposite to each other for transmitting a tube; *g* an opening for a retort neck, when used for distilling with the naked fire.

FIG. 59. A different view of the same furnace; *a* the grate; *c* the register to the ash-pit; *f* a small door, with a contrivance for supporting a muffle. The other letters correspond with the explanation of the preceding figure.

For this furnace the proper fuel, when it is used as a wind-furnace, is wood-charcoal, either alone, or with the admixture of a small proportion of coak. For distillation with a sand-heat, charcoal, with a little pit-coal, may be employed.

PLATE VII.

FIG. 60. represents a fixed furnace, which I find very useful, because it may either be employed as a wind-furnace, or for distillation with a sand-heat. Its total height outside is thirty-three inches, and the outside square is eighteen inches, or two bricks laid lengthwise. The thickness of the sides of the furnace is the breadth of a brick, or four and a half inches: but whenever there is room, it is better to make them nine inches in thickness. From the top of the furnace to the grate, which is moveable, and supported by two bearers, the height is thirteen inches; and at *c* is a double Rumford door; or, in preference, a hole, closed by a moveable earthen-stopper, for introducing fuel. The ash-pit should have a register door. The chimney is four inches wide by three high, and may either be furnished with a damper or not. On the top of the furnace a cast-iron ring is fixed, ten inches inside diameter, three inches broad, and half-an-inch thick. It is secured in its place by three iron-pins, passing through three equidistant holes in the ring, and bent at the distance of nine inches at a right angle. These serve the purpose of binding the ring firmly into the brick-work. The sand pots are of different sizes; and a variety of them may be made to fit the same ring, by varying the breadth of their rims, as shewn fig. 71. The bricks should be cemented together, at least for the inner half of their breadth, by loam, or by a mixture of Stourbridge clay, with two or three parts sand, and a proper quantity of water.

When this is used as a wind-furnace, the opening in the side is to be closed by its stopper; or, if a Rumford door be employed, it must be defended from the fuel by a fire-tile. The fuel (coak) is introduced at the top, which is occasionally covered by a fire-tile. When distillation with a sand-heat is performed, the sand pot rests on the iron-ring, and the fuel, which may be common pit coal, is added through the opening in the side. It may be proper to state, that, in order to receive a sand pot of as large a size as possible, the upper course of brick should be bevelled within the furnace; and the width at the top may exceed a little that at the grate.

The best Stourbridge or Newcastle-on-Tyne fire-bricks are necessary in constructing this and the following furnaces.

FIG. 61. is a longitudinal section of a wind-furnace, invented by Mr. Knight, with an additional chamber for applying the waste heat to useful purposes. *a* the internal cavity, which is square, for containing the fuel and the crucible. *b* the flue passing into a hot chamber *c*; an appendage particularly useful for drying luted crucibles, or bringing them to a proper temperature for the furnace; for roasting ores, and various other purposes. *d* the flue connecting it with the vertical chimney *e*; which, to produce a strong heat, should never be less than thirty or forty feet high. *f f* covers, consisting of twelve inch Welsh tiles, with handles. *g* the stoke hole, through which no more of the fire is seen than appears between the grate and the bearing bar *b*. This space is left for the double purpose of raking the fire, and occasionally taking out the bars. *h* the ash-pit, which is sunk below the level of the ground, and is covered, where it projects at *i*, by an iron grating.

The best situation for this furnace, is an angle of the laboratory, the chimney being in the corner, as represented in the sketch. By this arrangement, the operator is spared the disagreeable necessity of scorching his legs, by standing opposite the stoke hole, while the backs of his legs are exposed to a current of cold air rushing to the furnace.

Figs. 62. and 63. are different views of a furnace invented by Mr. Knight, and convertible to various purposes.

The inside of this furnace is nine inches square, and sixteen inches deep from the top to the grate. The face of the opening at *r* rises at an angle, which makes the back part five inches higher than the front. This contrivance enables us completely to cover a large retort with fuel, without obstructing the passage of the air, and also relieves partly the weight of the cover, when it requires to be moved. The walls of the furnace are at least a brick and a half in thickness, and as much more as local convenience will allow. By sinking the ash-pit below the level of the ground at *i*, the height of the furnace needs not exceed eighteen inches, which renders the management of the fuel much more easy and subjects the face and hands less to the action of the heat. The ash-pit *a*, must be at least eighteen inches deep, below the surface of the ground, and more if convenient. It must have an opening, projecting from it three or four feet, to be covered with boards, and with an iron grating next the furnace. This preserves the legs of the operator from the action of the fire.

The grate *b* is formed of separate bars, each of a triangular shape, three-fourths of an inch apart, and resting on two bearers. In the front of the furnace, an iron bar is to be placed to support the brickwork, and to leave an opening, through which the bars may occasionally be drawn out, and the fire be raked and cleared of the slag. The chimney *c* is two and a half inches from the top, and four and a half wide, by two and a half high.

To fit this furnace for occasional distillation with the naked fire, an opening, *d* fig. 62, is left on one side, which is filled up, when not wanted, by five pieces of soft fire brick, cut to a proper shape, and secured by a clay lute. It is proper, also, to be provided with other pieces, having arched openings for transmitting the neck of a retort. One of these pieces may have a round hole for occasionally transmitting a tube, and a corresponding hole, *e*, fig. 63, must then be made in the opposite side of the furnace, to be closed, when not wanted with a stopper.

Figs. 64 and 65 represent a sand heat, for containing flat evaporating vessels; the depth from back to front two feet; the width, agreeably to the scale, six feet. At the front is a rim four inches deep, consisting of a piece of iron plate, which is fastened at each end into the wall. The floor or bottom, *e e*, is formed of cast iron plates, which rest upon each other in corresponding rabbets. The advantage of several small plates, over one large one, is the cheapness and facility, with which they are replaced, if cracked by the heat, an accident of not infrequent occurrence. The joints are secured by a fire lute, which effectually prevents the sand from falling through. The fire place is shown by *f*, at the bottom it has a grate ten inches long, by eight wide. The flame and smoke circulate first through the flue *g*, and then through the returning flue *h*, which conveys the smoke to the chimney *i*. In constructing the flue beneath the grate, a row of bricks, set edgewise, answers the purpose, and serves also to support the inner edge of the plates.

It is advisable to cover the sand heat with a sloping roof, which may be formed of lath and plaster, and supported by side walls. The lowest part of the roof may be foremost, and about three feet above the edge of the iron

plates. It is, also, necessary to have an air-flue, nearly at the top of the back wall, under the dome or roof, to be closed occasionally by a door. This must open into the chimney, in which case it serves the purpose of carrying off noxious vapours.

PLATE VIII.

Figs. 66, 67, 68 are the section and plans of a reverberatory furnace for experimental purposes. In this furnace, the fuel is contained in an anterior fire-place; and the substance, to be submitted to the action of heat, is placed on the floor of another chamber, situated between the front one and the chimney. The flame of the fuel passes into the second compartment; by the form of which it is concentrated upon the substance exposed to heat, which is not confined in a separate vessel or crucible, but placed on the floor of the furnace. When reduced to a state of fusion, the melted mass is allowed to flow out through a tap-hole at *b*. The dimensions of this furnace it is scarcely possible to state, as they vary so considerably in different parts of it; but they may be ascertained by referring to the figures, and by the application of the scale. In all three figures, *a* represents the ash-pit; *b* the grate composed of moveable bars; *c* the door at which the fuel is introduced; *d* a door in the side of the chamber, for the purpose of inspecting the process; *e* the floor of the furnace which descends, and is gradually contracted towards the back part; *f* another door for introducing and stirring the materials; *g* the back part of the furnace, immediately under the chimney; *h* the tap-hole; *i* the chimney.

Figs. 69 and 70, exhibit a cupelling or *enamelling furnace*. The form of this should be an oblong square; its dimensions being regulated by that of the muffle, which should go home to the back, its front edge lodging on the mouth of the furnace. On each side of the muffle, two inches and a half must be left, to let the fuel pass readily underneath, where there should also be a similar space. A stoke-hole must be left on the other side, but the situation of the view will not admit its being shewn. Before the muffle, is a projecting ledge or shelf, shewn at *e*, which is intended to support any thing that is to be put into the muffle. Two twelve-inch tiles, worked in along with the bricks, will answer this purpose. In both figures, *a* shews the ash pit; *c* the grate; *d* the muffle; *e* the opening for introducing the muffle; *f* the chimney, and *g* the cover.

Fig. 71. sand pots with rims of different sizes.

Fig. 72, 73. Doctor Black's portable furnace, made of sheet-iron lined with fire-clay. Its dimensions, as they vary in almost every part, will best be learned from the scale; *a* the fire-place; *b* the chimney; *c* the ash pit; *d* the door of the ash pit; *e* a register for regulating the quantity of air admitted to pass through the fuel.

Fig. 74. Mr. Chenevix's wind furnace. This is rudely sketched in Nicholson's Journal, from which the more accurate figure in Plate VIII. is taken. This furnace Mr. Chenevix describes as follows: "I have constructed a wind furnace, which, in some respects, is preferable to the usual form. The sides, instead of being perpendicular, are inverted; so that the hollow space is pyramidal. At the bottom the space is twelve inches square, and at the top only eight. The perpendicular height is seventeen inches, from the top to the grate. This form unites the following advantages. 1. A large surface is exposed to the air, which, having an easy entrance, rushes through the fuel with great rapidity. 2. The inclined sides act as reverberators. 3. The fuel falls of itself, and is always close to the grate.

H h h

In the figure, *a* represents the grate; *cc* are two bricks which can be let in at pleasure, to diminish the capacity; *b* is another grate which can be placed on the bricks *cc*, for occasional purposes; *dd* are bricks, which can be placed on the grate *b*, to diminish the capacity of this part of the furnace; *e* the cover. Both sets of bricks should be ground to the slope of the furnace.

In the construction of every furnace, which is intended to produce a strong heat, lime or mortar should be avoided, and the bricks should be set in loam, or Stourbridge clay, worked up with water and sand, inserting occasionally pieces of sheet iron, bent twice in opposite directions at right angles. The furnace should be allowed to remain some weeks, after setting up, before it is used; and before raising a strong heat, a gentle fire should be sometimes kindled in it, the strength of which may be gradually increased. When a strong blast is expected, it is necessary to bind the brickwork together, externally, by strong iron bars and plates, kept in their places by crews. The chimney should be nine inches wide, and raised to as great a height as circumstances will admit.

The coke of pit-coal is the only fuel fitted for exciting an intense heat, and should be used in all cases, except in the reverberatory, and in distillations with the sand bath, when pit-coal may be employed. The charcoal of wood is adapted principally to portable furnaces.

APPENDIX II.

CONSISTING OF VARIOUS USEFUL TABLES.

No. I.

CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN ENGLISH AND FOREIGN WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

1. *English Weights and Measures.*

Troy Weight.

<i>Pound.</i>	<i>Ounces.</i>	<i>Drms.</i>	<i>Scruples.</i>	<i>Grains.</i>	<i>Grammes.</i>
1	= 12	= 96	= 288	= 5760	= 372.96
	1	= 8	= 24	= 480	= 31.08
		1	= 3	= 60	= 3.885
			1	= 20	= 1.295
				1	= 0.06475

Avoirdupois Weight.

<i>Pound.</i>	<i>Ounces.</i>	<i>Drms.</i>	<i>Grains.</i>	<i>Grammes.</i>
1	= 16	= 256	= 7000	= 453.25
	1	= 16	= 437.5	= 28.32
		1	= 27.975	= 1.81

Measures.

<i>Gal.</i>	<i>Pints.</i>	<i>Ounces.</i>	<i>Drms.</i>	<i>Cub. Incb.</i>	<i>Litres.</i>
1	= 8	= 128	= 1024	= 231	= 3.78515
	1	= 16	= 128	= 28.875	= 0.47398
		1	= 8	= 1.8047	= 0.02957
			1	= 0.2256	= 0.00396

N. B.—The English ale-gallon contains 282 cubical inches.

2. *German.*

71 lbs. or gra. English troy,	=	74 lbs. or gra. German apothecaries weight.
1 oz. Nuremberg, medic. weight,	=	7 dr. 1 sc. 9 gr. English
1 mark Cologne.	=	7 oz. 2 dwt. 4 gr. English troy

3. *Dutch.*

1 lb. Dutch,	=	1 lb. 3 oz. 16 dwt. 7 gr. English troy.
787½ lbs. Dutch,	=	1038 lbs. English troy.

4. *Swedish Weights and Measures, used by Bergman and Scheek.*

The Swedish pound, which is divided like the English apothecary, or troy, pound, weighs 6556 gra. troy.

The kanne of pure water, according to Bergman, weighs 42250 Swedish grains, and occupies 100 Swedish cubical inches. Hence the kanne of pure water weighs 48088.719444 English troy grains, or is equal to 189.9413 English cubic inches; and the Swedish longitudinal inch is equal to 1.238435 English longitudinal inches.

From these data, the following rules are deduced.

1. To reduce Swedish longitudinal inches to English, multiply by 1.2384, or divide by 0.80747.
2. To reduce Swedish to English cubical inches, multiply by 89, or divide by 0.5265.
3. To reduce the Swedish pound, ounce, dram, scruple, or grain, to the corresponding English troy denomination, multiply by 1.1382, or divide by .8786.
4. To reduce the Swedish kannes to English wine pints, multiply by .1320207, or divide by 6.57804.
5. The lod, a weight sometimes used by Bergman, is the 32d part of the Swedish pound. Therefore to reduce it to the English troy pound, multiply by .03557, or divide by 28.1156.

5. *Correspondence of English Weights and Measures with those used in France before the Revolution.*§. I. *Weights.*

The Paris pound, poida de marc of Charlemagne, contains 9216 Paris grains; it is divided into 16 ounces, each ounce into 8 gros, and each gros into 72 grains. It is equal to 7161 English troy grains.

The English troy pound of 12 ounces contains 5760 English troy grains, and is equal to 7021 Paris grains.

The English avoirdupois pound of 16 ounces contains 7000 English troy grains, and is equal to 8538 Paris grains.

OLD FRENCH WEIGHTS, &c.

xiii

To reduce Paris grains to English troy grains, divide by	}	1.2189
To reduce English troy grains to Paris grains, multiply by		
To reduce Paris ounces to English troy, divide by	}	1.015734
To reduce English troy ounces to Paris, multi- ply by		

Or the conversion may be made by means of the following tables :

I.—To reduce French to English Troy Weight.

The Paris pound	=	7561.	}	English troy grains.
The ounce	=	472.5625		
The gros	=	59.0703		
The grain	=	.8204		

II.—To reduce English troy to Paris weight.

The English troy pound of 12 ounces	=	7021.	}	Paris grains.
The troy ounce	=	585.0833		
The dram of 60 grains	=	73.1354		
The penny-weight, or denier, of 24 grains	}	=		
		29.2541		
The scruple of 20 grains	=	24.3784		
The grain	=	1.2189		

III.—To reduce English avoirdupois to Paris weight.

The avoirdupois pound of 16 ounces, or 7000 troy grains	}	= 8538.	}	Paris grains.
The ounce				

§. 2. LONG AND CUBICAL MEASURES.

To reduce Paris running feet, or inches, into English, multiply by	}	1.065977
English running feet, or inches, into Paris, divide by		
To reduce Paris cubic feet, or inches, to English, multiply by	}	1.211278
English cubic feet, or inches, to Paris, divide by		

Or by means of the following tables :

IV.—To reduce Paris long measure to English.

The Paris royal foot of 12 inches	=	12.7977	}	English inches.
The inch	=	1.0664		
The line, or 1-12th of an inch	=	.0888		
The 1-12th of a line	=	.0074		

V.—To reduce English long measure to French.

The English foot	=	11.2596	}	Paris inches.
The inch	=	.9383		
The 1-8th of an inch	=	.1173		
The 1-10th	=	.0938		
The line, or 1-12th	=	.0782		

VI.—To reduce French cube measure to English.

$$\begin{array}{lcl}
 \text{The Paris cube foot} & \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \end{array} \right\} = 1.211278 & \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{English} \\ \text{cubical} \end{array} \right\} 2093.088384 \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \end{array} \right\} \text{ inches.} \\
 \text{The cubic inch} & = .000700 & \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{feet, or} \\ 1.211278 \end{array} \right\}
 \end{array}$$

VII.—To reduce English cube measure to French.*

$$\begin{array}{lcl}
 \text{The English cube foot, or 1728} & \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \end{array} \right\} = 1417.4864 & \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{French cubical} \\ \text{inches} \end{array} \right\} \\
 \text{The cubical inch} & = .8260 & \\
 \text{The cube tenth} & = .0008 &
 \end{array}$$

§. 3. MEASURE OF CAPACITY

The Paris pint contains 58.145† English cubical inches, and the English wine-pint contains 28.875‡ cubical inches; or, the Paris pint contains 20171081 English pints, and the English pint contains .49617 Paris pints; hence,

$$\begin{array}{lcl}
 \text{To reduce the Paris pint to the English, multiply by} & \left\{ \right. & 20171081 \\
 \text{To reduce the English pint to the Paris divide by} & \left. \right\} &
 \end{array}$$

The sextier of Paris is 7.76 French, or 9370.45 English, cubical inches, and the muid is 92832 French, or 112445.4 English cubical inches.

* To convert the weight of a French cubic foot, of any particular substance given in French grains, into the corresponding weight of an English cubic foot in English troy grains, multiply the French grains by 0.677181, and the product is the number of English troy grains contained in an English cubic foot of the same substance.

† It is said by Belidor, *Arclut. Hydrog.* to contain 31 oz. 64 grs. of water, which makes it 58.075 English inches; but, as there is considerable uncertainty in the determinations of the weight of the French cubical measure of water, owing to the uncertainty of the standards made use of, it is better to abide by Mr. Everard's measure, which was made by the exchequer standards, and by the proportions of the English and French foot, as established by the French Academy and Royal Society.

‡ According to Beaumé, the Paris pint contains 32 French ounces of water, at the temperature of 54.5° of Fahrenheit; which would make it equal to 59.729 English cubical inches.

COMPARISON OF FRENCH AND ENGLISH GRAINS. XV

6. Table, shewing the comparison between French and English Grains. (Poid de Marc.)

<i>French grs. = English grs.</i>		<i>English grs. = French grs.</i>	
1	0.8203	1	1.2189
2	1.6407	2	2.4378
3	2.4611	3	3.6568
4	3.2815	4	4.8757
5	4.1019	5	6.0947
6	4.9223	6	7.3136
7	5.7427	7	8.5325
8	6.5631	8	9.7515
9	7.3835	9	10.9704
10	8.203	10	12.189
20	16.407	20	24.378
30	24.611	30	36.568
40	32.815	40	48.757
50	41.019	50	60.947
60	49.223	60	73.136
70	57.427	70	85.325
80	65.631	80	97.515
90	73.835	90	109.704
100	82.03	100	121.89
200	164.07	200	243.78
300	246.11	300	365.68
400	328.15	400	487.57
500	410.19	500	609.47
600	492.23	600	731.36
700	574.27	700	853.25
800	656.31	800	975.15
900	738.35	900	1097.04
1000	820.3	1000	1218.9
2000	1640.7	2000	2437.8
3000	2461.1	3000	3656.8
4000	3281.5	4000	4875.7
5000	4101.9	5000	6094.7
6000	4922.3	6000	7313.6
7000	5742.7	7000	8532.5
8000	6563.1	8000	9751.5
9000	7383.5	9000	10970.4
10,000	8203.0	10,000	12189.0

7. Table shewing the Comparison between French and English Cubical Inches.

Cubic inches.		Cubic inches.	
<i>French.</i>	<i>= Engl.</i>	<i>Engl.</i>	<i>= French.</i>
1	1.2136	1	0.8249
2	2.4272	2	1.6479
3	3.6408	3	2.4719
4	4.8544	4	3.2958
5	6.0681	5	4.1198
6	7.2817	6	4.9438
7	8.4953	7	5.7677
8	9.7089	8	6.5917
9	10.9225	9	7.4157
10	12.136	10	8.239
20	24.272	20	16.479
30	36.408	30	24.719
40	48.544	40	32.958
50	60.681	50	41.198
60	72.817	60	49.438
70	84.953	70	57.677
80	97.089	80	65.917
90	109.225	90	74.157
100	121.36	100	82.39
200	242.72	200	164.79
300	364.08	300	247.19
400	485.44	400	329.58
500	606.81	500	411.98
600	728.17	600	494.38
700	849.53	700	576.77
800	970.89	800	659.17
900	1092.25	900	741.57
1000	1213.6	1000	823.9
2000	2427.2	2000	1647.9
3000	3640.8	3000	2471.9
4000	4854.4	4000	3295.8
5000	6068.1	5000	4119.8
6000	7281.7	6000	4943.8
7000	8495.3	7000	5767.7
8000	9708.9	8000	6591.7
9000	10922.5	9000	7415.7
10,000	12136.0	10,000	8239.0

New French Weights and Measures, (calculated by Dr. Duncan jun.

1. Measures of Length : the Metre being at 32°, and the Foot at 62°.

English Inches.

Millimetre	=	.03937						
Centimetre	=	.39371						
Decimetre	=	3.93710						
Metre	=	39.37100						
Decametre	=	393.71000	=	0	0	10	2	9.7
Hecatometre	=	3937.10000	=	0	0	109	1	1
Kilometre	=	39371.00000	=	0	4	213	1	10.2
Myriometre	=	393710.00000	=	6	1	156	0	6

2. Measures of Capacity.

Cubic Inches.

Millilitre	=	.06103						
Centilitre	=	.61028						
Decilitre	=	6.10280						
Litre	=	61.02800	=	0	0	0		2.1133
Decalitre	=	610.28000	=	0	0	2		5.1352
Hectolitre	=	6102.80000	=	0	0	26.419		
Kilolitre	=	61028.00000	=	1	0	12.19		
Myrialitre	=	610280.00000	=	10	1	58.9		

3. Measures of Weight.

English grains.

Milligramme	=	.0154						
Centigramme	=	.1544						
Decigramme	=	1.5444						
Gramme	=	15.4440						
Decagramme	=	154.4402	=	0	0			5.65
Hecatogramme	=	1544.4023	=	0	3			8.5
Kilogramme	=	15444.0234	=	2	3			5
Myriogramme	=	154440.2344	=	22	1			2

XY FOR MEASURES, AND CUBICAL INCHES.

9.—*Reduction of the Ounce Measures used by Dr. Priestley to Cubical Inches.*

<i>Ounce Measures.</i>		<i>English Cubical Inches.</i>
1		1.898
2		3.796
3		5.694
4		7.592
5		9.490
6		11.388
7		13.286
8		15.184
9		17.082
10	15.070	18.980
20	31.340	37.960
30	47.010	56.940
40	62.680	75.920
50	78.350	94.900
60	94.020	113.880
70	109.690	132.860
80	125.360	151.840
90	141.030	170.820
100	156.700	189.800
1000	1567.000	1898.000

10.—TABLE, SHewing THE ABSOLUTE WEIGHTS AND SPECIFIC GRAVITIES OF GASES, AND THE QUANTITY OF EACH ABSORBED BY WATER.

(Temperature 60° FAHRENHEIT, Barometer 29.8.)

KIND OF GAS.	Weight of 100 Cubic Inches in Eng. Grains.	Specific Gravity Standard.			No. of Cubic Inches absorbed by 100 Inches of Water.	
		Water.	Air.			
Water,		1000.				
Atmospheric air,	31.	1.2279	1000	S. K.		
Simple Gases.	Oxygen gas,	34.	1.35	1103	K.	3.7 H.
	Ditto ditto	34.74	1.39	1127	D.	
	Azotic gas,	30.535	1.21	985	K.	1.53 H.
	Ditto ditto,	30.45	1.20	980	D.	
	Hydrogen gas,	2.613	0.1631	84	K.	1.61 H.
Compound Combustible Gases.	Ammonia,	18.26	0.715	585	K.	
	Ditto,	18.	0.713	580	D.	47500. D.
	Hydro-carburet from stagnant water,	20.66	. .	666	Dal.	1.40 H.
	Ditto from water over ignited charcoal,	14.5	. .	468	Cr.	
	Ditto from alcohol,	16.	. .	516	Cr.	
	Ditto from ether,	20.	. .	645	Cr.	
	Ditto from coal,	20.2	. .	650	Dal.	
	Phosphuretted hydrogen,			2.14 H.
	Sulphuretted ditto,	34.286	1.36	1142	K.	108. H.
	Ditto ditto,	32.17	. .	1231	Th.	
Acid Gases, Oxides.	Olefiant gas,	28.18	. .	905	Dei.	12.5 Dal.
	Vapour of alcohol,	31.5*	. .	2100	Dal.	
	Ditto of ether,	62.1†	. .	2250	Dal.	
	Carbonic oxide,	30.	1.185	967	Cr.	2.01 H.
	Nitrous oxide,	50.2	1.985	1615	. .	86. H.
	Nitric oxide,	37.	1.465	1193	K.	5. H.
	Ditto ditto,	34.3	1.36	1105	D.	
	Carbonic acid,	46.5	1.84	1500	K.	108. H.
	Ditto ditto,	45.5	1.802	1470	D.	
	Muriatic acid,	44.7	1.765	1430	B.	51500. T.
	Ditto ditto,	59.8	. .	1929	K.	
	Nitric acid,	76.	3.	2425	D.	
	Sulphurous,	70.215	2.75	2240	K.	3300. T.

B. Briffon; Cr. Cruickshank; D. Davy; Dal. Dalton; Dei. Deiman; H. Henry; K. Kirwan; S. Shuckburgh; T. Thomson; Th. Thenard.

* Of temperature 190° Fahrenheit, and force = 30 inches of mercury.

† Of temperature 100° Fahrenheit, and force = 30 inches of mercury.

11.—Specific Gravities of Solid and Liquid Substances.

GEMS.	Specific Grav.	STONES, &c.	Specific Grav.
Diamond, white oriental,	2.5212	Jasper, brown,	2.6911
Topaz, oriental,	4.0106	Granite, Egyptian, . . .	2.6541
Sapphire, oriental, . . .	3.9941	Rock-crystal,	2.6530
Garnet, Bohemian,	4.1888	Chalcedony, bright, . . .	2.6640
Beryl, oriental,	3.5489	Carrara marble,	2.7168
Hyacinth, common,	3.6873	Alabaster, oriental, . . .	2.7302
Emerald, from Peru, . . .	2.7755	Cornelian,	2.6117
Crysolite, from Brasil, . .	2.6923	Slate, common for roofs, .	2.8535
Amethyst, oriental, . . .	2.6511	Flint,	2.5941
Ruby, oriental,	4.2833	Agate, oriental,	2.5901
		Portland-stone,	2.5531
STONES.		Serpentine, green, Italian,	2.4295
Ponderous spar,	4.4300	Opal, noble,	2.1441
Porphyry,	2.7651	Pumice-stone,	0.9145

SALTS.

	Hallm- fritz.	Kirwan.	Muschen- brock.	Newton
Potash,	1.7085	4.6213		
Lime,	1.5233	2.3908	2.3700	
Magnesia,	0.3460	2.3298		
Alumina,	0.8200	2.0000		
Barytes,	2.3740	4.0000		
Sulphate of potash,	2.4073	2.636	2.398	
— alumine,	1.7109		1.7260	1.714
— zinc,	1.9120		1.9	1.718
— iron,	1.8399		1.88	
— copper,	2.1943	2.23		
Nitrate of potash,	1.9369	1.933	1.901	1.900
Muriate of soda,	2.2001		2.0835	2.143
Acetate of lead,	2.3450		2.3953	
Super-tartrate of potash, .	1.9153		1.8745	
Sub-borate of soda,	1.7230		1.7170	1.714
Carbonate of Potash,	2.0120		2.749	
— soda,	1.3591	1.421		
— ammonia,	0.9660	1.8245	1.5026	

GLASSES AND VITRIFICA- TIONS.	Specific Grav.	INFLAMMABLES.	Specific Grav.
Green bottle-glass,	2.7325	Roll-sulphur,	1.9907
French crystal-glass, . . .	2.8922	Phosphorus,	1.714
French mirror-glass, from St. Gobin,	2.4882	Pit-coal,	1.3202
English flint-glass,	3.3203	Amber,	1.0780
China porcelain,	2.3847	Heaviest charcoal,	0.441
		Mineral naphtha,	0.708

SPECIFIC GRAVITIES.

XXI.

*Table of Specific gravities of Solid and Liquid Substances,
—Continued.*

	Specific Grav.		Specific Grav.
INFLAMMABLES.		ANIMAL FATS.	
Camphor,	0,9887	Tallow,	0,9419
Liquid ammonia,	0,8970	Mutton-suet,	0,9235
		Train-oil,	0,9235
		Hogs'-lard,	0,9568
WATERS.		Ivory,	1,825.
Distilled water,	1,0000	Bees'-wax,	0,9648
Sea-water,	1,0263		
Water from the Asphaltic Sea,	1,2403	GUMS.	
		Common Gum,	1,4817
ACIDS.		Gum-Arabic,	1,4523
Sulphuric acid of commerce,	1,8500	Gum-tragacanth,	1,3161
Sulphuric acid, real, . . .	2,1250		
Nitric acid,	1,5800	GUM-RESINS.	
Muriatic acid,	1,1940	Asafœtida,	1,3275
Concentrated acetic acid, .	1,0626	Scammonium, from Smyr- na,	1,2743
		Galbanum,	1,2120
SPIRITUOUS LIQUIDS.			
Madeira wine,	1,0382	RESINS.	
Cyder,	1,0181	Guaiacum,	1,2289
Brown beer,	1,0338	Jalap,	1,2185
Burgundy wine,	0,9915	Ammoniacum,	1,2071
Champaigne wine,	0,962	Benzoe,	1,0924
Brandy,	0,8371	Sandarac,	1,0920
Alcohol,*	0,8203	White resin,	1,0819
Nitric ether,	0,9088	Colophony,	1,0441
Acetic ether,	0,8664	Mastic,	1,0742
Sulphuric ether,†	0,7396	Copal, transparent,	1,0452
Muriatic ether,	0,7296	Elastic resin,	0,9335
ETHEREAL OILS.		INSPISSATED JUICES.	
Oil of cinnamon,	1,0439	Aloe <i>succatrina</i> ,	1,3795
Oil of cloves,	1,0363	Opium,	1,3366
Oil of lavender,	0,8938		
Spirit of turpentine, . . .	0,8697		
		WOODS.	
FAT OILS.		Lignum guaiacum,	1,3330
Linseed oil,	0,9403	Box-wood, Dutch,	1,3280
Poppy oil,	0,9288	French box-wood,	0,9120
Oil of sweet almonds, . . .	0,9170	Ebony,	1,209
Olive oil,	0,9153	Heart of old oak,	1,1700
		Mahogany,	1,063
ANIMAL FLUIDS.		Olive-tree,	0,9270
Asses' milk,	1,0355	Mulberry-tree, Spanish, . .	0,8970
Cows' milk,	1,0324	Beech-tree,	0,8520
Human milk,	1,0203	Yew-tree, Spanish,	0,8070
Human urine,	1,0106	Apple-tree,	0,7930
		Plum-tree,	0,7850
ANIMAL FATS.		Maple-tree,	0,7550
Spermaceti,	0,9483	Cherry-tree,	0,7150
Butter,	0,9423	Quince-tree,	0,7050

* Per Chauffier 0.7980.

† Per Lovitz 0.6320.

xxii CALC. OF WEIGHT FROM SPEC. GRAVITY.

*Table of Specific Gravities of Solid and Liquid Substances.
—Continued.*

	Specific Grav.		Specific Grav.
WOODS.		WOODS.	
Orange-tree,	0,7050	Pine tree,	0,5500
Walnut-tree,	0,6710	White Spanish poplar-tree,	0,5294
Pear-tree,	0,6610	Cork,	0,2400
Cypress, Spanish,	0,6440		

12.—Rules for Calculating the Absolute from the Specific Gravities of Bodies.

In 1696, Mr. Everard, balance-maker to the Exchequer, weighed before the Commissioners of the House of Commons 2145.6 cubical inches, by the Exchequer standard foot, of distilled water, at the temperature of 55° of Fahrenheit, and found it to weigh 1131 oz 14 dts. troy, of the Exchequer standard. The beam turned with 6 grs. when loaded with 30 pounds in each scale. Hence, supposing the pound avoirdupois to weigh 7000 grs. troy, a cubic foot of water weighs 62½ pounds avoirdupois or 1000 ounces avoirdupois, wanting 106 grains troy. And hence, if the specific gravity of water be called 1000, the proportional specific gravities of all other bodies will nearly express the number of avoirdupois ounces in a cubic foot. Or, more accurately, supposing the specific gravity of water expressed by 1, and of all other bodies in proportional numbers, as the cubic foot of water weighs, at the above temperature, exactly 437489.4 grains troy, and the cubic inch of water 253.175 grains, the absolute weight of a cubical foot or inch of any body in troy grains may be found by multiplying their specific gravity by either of the above numbers respectively.

By Everard's experiment, and the proportions of the English and French foot, as established by the Royal Society and French Academy of Sciences, the following numbers are ascertained

Paris grains in a Paris cube foot of water	=	645511
English grains in a Paris cube foot of water	=	519922
Paris grains in an English cube foot of water	=	533247
English grains in an English cube foot of water	=	437489.4
English grains in an English cube inch of water	=	253.175
By an experiment of Picard with the measure and weight of the Chatelet, the Paris cube foot of water contains of Paris grains	=	641326
By one of Du Hamel, made with great care	=	641376
By Homberg	=	641666

These shew some uncertainty in measures or in weights; but the above computation from Everard's experiment may be relied on, because the comparison of the foot of England with that of France was made by the joint labour of the Royal Society of London and the French Academy of Sciences. It agrees likewise very nearly with the weight assigned by M. Lavoisier, 70 Paris pounds to the cubical foot of water.

13.—TABLE FOR REDUCING THE DEGREES OF BAUME'S
HYDROMETER TO THE COMMON STANDARD.

BAUME'S Hydrometer for Liquids lighter than Water.

Temperature 55° Fahrenheit, or 10° Reaumur.

Deg.	Sp. Gr.	Deg.	Sp. Gr.	Deg.	Sp. Gr.	Deg.	Sp. Gr.
10	- 1.000	18	- .942	26	- .892	34	- .847
11	- .990	19	- .935	27	- .886	35	- .842
12	- .985	20	- .928	28	- .880	36	- .837
13	- .977	21	- .922	29	- .874	37	- .832
14	- .970	22	- .915	30	- .867	38	- .827
15	- .963	23	- .909	31	- .871	39	- .822
16	- .955	24	- .903	32	- .856	40	- .817
17	- .949	25	- .897	33	- .852		

BAUME'S Hydrometer for Liquids heavier than water.

Temperature 55° Fahrenheit, or 10° Reaumur.

Deg.	Sp. Gr.	Deg.	Sp. Gr.	Deg.	Sp. Gr.	Deg.	Sp. Gr.
0	- 1.000	21	- 1.170	42	- 1.414	63	- 1.779
3	- 1.020	24	- 1.200	45	- 1.455	66	- 1.848
6	- 1.040	27	- 1.230	48	- 1.500	69	- 1.920
9	- 1.064	30	- 1.261	51	- 1.547	72	- 2.000
12	- 1.089	33	- 1.295	54	- 1.594		
15	- 1.114	36	- 1.333	57	- 1.659		
18	- 1.140	39	- 1.373	60	- 1.717		

No. II.

ADMEASUREMENT AND EFFECTS OF HEAT.

1.—Correspondence between different Thermometers.

Fahrenheit's thermometer is universally used in this kingdom. In it the range between the freezing and boiling points of water is divided into 180 degrees; and as the greatest possible degree of cold was supposed to be that produced by mixing snow and muriate of soda, it was made the zero, and the freezing point became 32°, and the boiling point 212°.

The Centigrade thermometer places the zero at the freezing point, and divides the range between it and the boiling point into 100°. This has long been used in Sweden under the title of Celsius's Thermometer.

Reaumur's thermometer, which was formerly used in France, divides the space between the freezing and boiling of water into 80°, and places the zero at the freezing point.

Wedgwood's pyrometer is only intended to measure very high temperatures. Its zero corresponds with 1077° of Fahrenheit's, and each degree of Wedgwood is equal to 130 of Fahrenheit.

De Lisle's thermometer is used in Russia. The graduation begins at the boiling point, and increases towards the freezing point. The boiling point is marked 0, and the freezing point 150.

$$\text{Therefore } 180^{\circ} \text{ F} = 100^{\circ} \text{ C} = 80^{\circ} \text{ R} = 150^{\circ} \text{ D} = \frac{18}{13} \text{ W.}$$

1. To reduce centigrade degrees to those of Fahrenheit, multiply by 9 and divide by 5, and to the quotient add 32, that is, $\frac{\text{C} \times 9}{5} + 32 = \text{F.}$

$$2. \text{ To reduce Fahrenheit's degrees to centigrade, } \frac{\text{F} - 32 \times 5}{9} = \text{C.}$$

3. To reduce Reaumur's to Fahrenheit's, we have the following formula, $\frac{\text{R} \times 9}{4} + 32 = \text{F.}$

$$4. \text{ To convert Fahrenheit to Reaumur, } \frac{\text{F} - 32 \times 4}{9} = \text{R.}$$

5. To reduce De Lisle's degrees under the boiling point, we have $\text{F} = 212 - \frac{\text{D} \times 6}{5}$. To reduce those above the boiling point, $\text{F} = 212 + \frac{\text{D} \times 6}{5}$.

6. And, inversely, to reduce Fahrenheit's degrees to Delisle's, under the boiling point $\frac{1060 - 5 \text{ F}}{6} = \text{D}$; above the boiling point $\frac{\text{F} \times 5 - 1060}{6} = \text{D}$.

7. To reduce Wedgwood's degrees to those of Fahrenheit, we have $\text{W} \times 130 + 1077 = \text{F.}$

$$8. \text{ Inversely, to reduce Fahrenheit to Wedgwood, } \frac{\text{F} - 1077}{130} = \text{W.}$$

TABLE OF THE EFFECTS OF HEAT.

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2.—Table of the Effects of Heat.

1. Freezing Points of Liquids.

Fahrenheit.

— 55	Strongest Nitric acid freezes (Cavendish)
46	Ether and liquid ammonia
39	Mercury
36	Sulphuric acid (Thomson)
22	Acetous acid
11	2 Alcohol, 1 water
7	Brandy
+ 1	Strongest sulphuric acid (Cavendish)
16	Oil of turpentine (Macquer)
20	Strong wines
23	Fluoric acid
	Oils bergamot and cinnamon
25	Human blood
28	Vinegar
30	Milk
32	Oxymuriatic acid
	Water
36	Olive oil
46	Sulphuric acid, specific gravity 1.78 (Keir)
64	Oil of aniseeds, 50 (Thomson)

2. Melting Points of Solids.

40	Equal parts sulphur and phosphorus
82	Adipocire of muscle
97	Lard (Nicholson)
99	Phosphorus (Pellétier)
104	Resin of bile
109	Myrtle wax (Cadet)
112	Spermaceti (Bostock)
127	Tallow (Nicholson) 92 (Thomson)
149	Bees' wax
145	Ambergris (La Grange)
155	Bleached wax (Nicholson)
212	Bismuth 5 parts, tin 3, lead 2
234	Sulphur (Hope) 212 (Fourc.) 185 (Kirw.)
235	Adipocire of biliary calculi (Fourcroy)
283	Tin and bismuth, equal parts

XIVI TABLE OF THE EFFECTS OF HEAT.

<i>Fahren.</i>	<i>Wedg.</i>	
303		Camphor
334		Tin 3, lead 2, or tin 2, bismuth 1
442		Tin (Chrichton) 413 (Irvine)
460		Tin 1, lead 4
476		Bismuth (Irvine)
612		Lead (Chrichton) 594 (Irvine) 540 (Newton)
700		Zinc
809		Antimony
3809	21	Brass
4587	27	Copper
4717	■	Silver
5237	32	Gold
17977	130	Cobalt
20577	150	Nickel
21097	154	Soft nails
21637	158	Iron
21877	160	Manganese
23177	+ 170	Platina, Tungsten, Molybdena, Uranium, Titanium, &c.

3. *Solids and Liquids Volatilized.*

98	Ether boils
140	Liquid ammonia boils
145	Camphor sublimes (Venturi)
170	Sulphur evaporates (Kirwan)
176	Alcohol boils, 174 (Black)
212	Water and essential oils boil
219	Phosphorus distils (Pelletier)
230	Muriate of lime boils (Dalton)
242	Nitrous acid boils
248	Nitric acid boils
283	White arsenic sublimes
540	Metallic arsenic sublimes
554	Phosphorus boils
560	Oil of turpentine boils
570	Sulphur boils
590	Sulphuric acid boils (Dalton) 546 (Black)
600	Linseed oil boils, Sulphur sublimes (Davy)
660	Mercury boils (Dalton) 644 (Secondat) 600 (Black)

4. *Miscellaneous Effects of Heat.*

<i>Fahren.</i>	<i>Wdg.</i>	
— 90		Greatest cold produced by Mr. Walker
50		Natural cold observed at Hudson's bay
23		Observed on the surface of the snow at Glasgow, 1780
14		At Glasgow, 1780
0		Equal parts, snow and salt
+ 43		Phosphorus burns slowly
59		Vinous fermentation begins
66		to 135, Animal putrefaction
75		to 80, Summer heat in this climate
77		Vinous fermentation rapid, acetous begins
80		Phosphorus burns in oxygen, 104 (Gottling)
88		Acetification ceases
96		to 100, Animal temperature
107		Feverish heat
122		Phosphorus burns vividly (Fourcroy) 148 (Thomson)
130		Ammonia disengaged from water
165		Albumen coagulates 156 (Black)
303		Sulphur burns slowly
635		Lowest heat of ignition of iron in the dark
800		Hydrogen burns, 1000 (Thomson)
802		Charcoal burns (Thomson)
1050		Iron red in twilight
1077		Iron red in daylight
1300		Azotic gas burns
1077	1	Iron red in daylight
1300	+ 2	Azotic gas burns
1807	6	Enamel colours burned
2897	14	Diamond burns (M'Kenzie) 5000 (Morveau)
6507	■	Delft ware fired
8480	57	Working heat of plate glass
10177	70	Flint glass furnace
12257	86	Cream coloured ware fired
13297	94	Worcester china vitrified
14337	102	Stone ware fired
14727	105	Chelsea china fired
15637	112	Derby china fired
15897	114	Flint glass furnace greatest heat
16007	121	Bow china vitrified
16807	124	Plate glass greatest heat
17327	125	Smith's forge
20577	150	Hessian crucible fused
25127	185	Greatest heat observed

TABLES ON THE FORCE OF STEAM.

2. Table of the Force of Steam at different Temperatures, from actual experiment. (Belancourt in Fraun's Architecture Hydraulique.)

Temperature.	Force in Inch of Mercury.	Temperature.	Force in Inch of Mercury.
32°	- 0	162°	- 9.27
42	- .08	172	- 11.9
52	- .31	182	- 14.9
62	- .58	192	- 18.3
72	- .88	202	- 22.3
82	- 1.26	212	- 26.6
92	- 1.74	222	- 31.4
102	- 2.37	232	- 36.5
112	- 3.16	242	- 42.3
122	- 4.16	252	- 48.7
132	- 5.43	262	- 55.6
142	- 7.00	272	- 63.1
152		282	- 71.4

In the 6th volume of "Memoirs of the Manchester Society," a table of the force of vapour, for each degree of Fahrenheit, is given by Mr. Dalton; the numbers below 212 degrees from experiment, and the higher numbers from calculation. Mr. Belancourt, however, professes to have obtained all the above results from actual experiment.

4. *Table of the Expansion of a given bulk of Air, between 32° and 212° Fahrenheit.*

Temp.	Bulk.	Temp.	Bulk.	Temp.	Bulk.
32°	100000	59°	105616	86°	111232
33	100208	60	105824	87	111440
34	100416	61	106032	88	111648
35	100624	62	106240	89	111856
36	100832	63	106448	90	112064
37	101040	64	106656	91	112272
38	101248	65	106864	92	112480
39	101456	66	107070	93	112688
40	101664	67	107280	94	112896
41	101872	68	107488	95	113104
42	102080	69	107696	96	113312
43	102288	70	107904	97	113520
44	102496	71	108112	98	113728
45	102704	72	108320	99	113936
46	102912	73	108528	100	114144
47	103120	74	108736	110	116224
48	103328	75	108944	120	118304
49	103536	76	109152	130	120384
50	103744	77	109360	140	122464
51	103952	78	109568	150	124544
52	104160	79	109776	160	126624
53	104368	80	109984	170	128704
54	104576	81	110192	180	130784
55	104784	82	110400	190	132864
56	104992	83	110608	200	134944
57	105200	84	110816	210	137024
58	105408	85	111024	212	137440

3. Table of the Force of Steam at different Temperatures, from actual experiment. (Betancourt in Prony's *Architecture Hydraulique*.)

Temperature.	Force in Inches	Temperature.	Force in Inches of Mercury.
32°	-	162°	- 9.07
42	-	172	- 11.0
52	-	182	- 14.9
62	-	192	- 18.7
72	-	202	- 23.7
82	-	212	- 29.4
92	-	222	- 37.4
102	- 1	232	- 46.4
112	- 2	242	- 57.4
122	- 3.16	252	- 69.7
132	- 4.16	262	- 83.6
142	- 5.43	272	- 97.1
152	- 7.00	282	- 108.

In the 5th volume of "Memoirs of the Manchester Society," a table of the force of vapour, for each degree of Fahrenheit, is given by Mr. Dalton; the numbers below 212 degrees from experiment, and the higher numbers from calculation. Mr. Betancourt, however, professes to have obtained all the above results from actual experiment.

TABLE OF EXPANSION BY HEAT.

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4. Table of the Expansion of a given bulk of Air, between 32° and 212° Fahrenheit.

Temp.	Bulk.	Temp.	Bulk.	Temp.	Bulk.
32°	100000	59°	105616	86°	111232
33	100208	60	105824	87	111440
34	100416	61	106032	88	111648
35	100624	62	106240	89	111856
36	100832	63	106448	90	112064
37	101040	64	106656	91	112272
38	101248	65	106864	92	112486
39	101456	66	107070	93	112688
40	101664	67	107280	94	112896
41	101872	68	107488	95	113104
42	102080	69	107696	96	113312
43	102288	70	107904	97	113520
44	102496	71	108112	98	113728
45	102764	72	108320	99	113936
46	102912	73	108528	100	114144
47	103120	74	108736	110	116224
48	103328	75	108944	120	118304
49	103536	76	109152	130	120384
50	103744	77	109360	140	122464
51	103952	78	109568	150	124544
52	104160	79	109776	160	126624
53	104268	80	109984	170	128704
54	104576	81	110192	180	130784
55	104784	82	110400	190	132864
56	104992	83	110608	200	134944
57	105220	84	110816	210	137024
58	105408	85	111024	212	137440

XXX TABLE OF EXPANSION BY HEAT.

5. Table of the Expansion of Liquids by Heat.

Temp.	Mercury.	Lined Oil.	Sulphuric Acid.	Nitric Acid.	Water.	Oil of Turpen.	Alcohol.
32°	100000	100000	—	—	—	—	100000
40	100081	—	99752	99514	—	—	100539
50	100183	—	100000	100000	100023	100000	101105
60	100304	—	100279	100486	100091	100460	101688
70	100406	—	100558	100990	100197	100993	102281
80	100508	—	100806	101530	100332	101471	102890
90	100610	—	101054	102088	100694	101931	103517
100	100712	102760	101317	102620	100908	102446	104162
110	100813	—	101540	103196	—	102943	—
120	100915	—	101834	103776	101404	103421	—
130	101017	—	102097	104352	—	103954	—
140	101119	—	102320	105132	—	104573	—
150	101220	—	102614	—	102017	—	—
160	101322	—	102893	—	—	—	—
170	101424	—	103116	—	—	—	—
180	101526	—	103339	—	—	—	—
190	101628	—	103587	—	103617	—	—
200	101730	—	103911	—	—	—	—
212	101835	107250	—	—	104577	—	—



6. Table of the Expansion of Water by Heat.

Temp.	Expansion.	Temp.	Expansion.
42.5°	100000	112.5°	100777
52.5	100030	122.5	101006
62.5	100106	132.5	101220
72.5	100182	142.5	101495
82.5	100273	152.5	101755
92.5	100471	162.5	102040
102.5	100624	172.5	102260

TABLE OF EXPANSION BY HEAT.

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7. Table of the Expansion of Solids by Heat.

Temp.	Plati- na.†	Antimon.	Steel.	Iron.	Cast Iron.	Bismuth.
32°	120000	120000	120000	120000	120000	120000
212	120104	120130	120147	120151		120167
White heat°			123428	121500	122571	
	Copper.	Cast Brass.	Brass Wire.	Tin.	Lead.	Zinc.
32°	120000	120000	120000	120000	120000	120000
212	120204	120225	120232	120298	120344	120355
	Hammer- ed zinc.	Zinc 8 Tin 1	Lead 2 Tin 1	Brass 2 Zinc 1	Pewter.	Copper 3 Tin 1
32°	120000	120000	120000	120000	120000	120000
212	120373	120323	120301	120247	120274	120218

Expansion of Glass.

Temp.	Bulk.	Temp.	Bulk.	Temp.	Bulk.
32°	100000	100°	100023	167°	100056
50	100006	120	100033	190	100069
70	100014	150	100044	212	100083

* Rinman.

† Borda.

‡ The metal, whose expansion is here given, was an alloy composed of three parts of copper, and one of tin. The figures in some of the preceding columns are to be understood in the same manner. Thus, in the last column but two, the metal consisted of two parts of brass, alloyed with one of zinc.

8.—*Table of Freezing Mixtures.*

<i>Mixtures</i>	<i>Thermometer sinks.</i>
Muriate of ammonia 5 parts Nitre 5 Water 16	From 50° to 10°
Muriate of ammonia 5 Nitre 5 Sulphate of soda 8 Water 16	From 50 to 4
Nitrate of ammonia 1 Water 1	From 50 to 4
Nitrate of ammonia 1 Carbonate of soda 1 Water 1	From 50 to 7
Sulphate of soda . 3 Diluted nitric acid 2	From 50 to 3
Sulphate of soda . 6 Muriate of ammonia 4 Nitre 2 Diluted nitric acid 4	From 50 to 10
Sulphate of soda . 6 Nitrate of ammonia 5 Diluted nitric acid 4	From 50 to 14
Phosphate of soda 9 Diluted nitric acid 4	From 50 to 12
Phosphate of soda 9 Nitrate of ammonia 6 Diluted nitric acid 4	From 50 to 21
Sulphate of soda . 8 Muriatic acid . 5	From 50 to 0

Table of Freezing Mixtures—Continued.

Mixtures.	Thermometer sinks.
Sulphate of soda . . 5 parts Diluted sulphuric acid 4	From 50° to 3°
Snow 1 Common salt . . . 1	From 32 to 0
Muriate of lime . . 3 Snow 2	From 30 to —50
Potash 4 Snow 3	From 32 to —51
Snow 1 Diluted sulphuric acid 1	From 20 to —60
Snow, or pounded ice 2 Common salt . . . 1	From 0 to —5
Snow and diluted nitric acid	From 0 to —46
Muriate of lime . . 2 Snow 1	From 0 to —66
Snow, or pounded ice 1 Common salt . . . 5 Muriate of ammonia and nitre 5	From —5 to —18
Snow 2 Diluted sulphuric acid 1 Diluted nitric acid . 1	From —10 to —56
Snow or pounded ice 12 Common salt . . . 5 Nitrate of ammonia 5	From —18 to —25
Muriate of lime . . 3 Snow 1	From —40 to —73
Diluted sulphuric acid 10 Snow 8	From —68 to —91

No. III.

1.—TABLE of the Solubility of Salts in Water.

NAMES OF SALTS.	Solubility in 100 Parts Water	
	At 60°.	At 91°.
ACIDS.		
Arsenic,	150.	
Benzoic,	0.208	4.27
Boracic,		2.
Camphoric,	1.04	8.3
Citric,	133.	200.
Gallie,	8.3	66.
Mucic,	0.24	2.25
Molybdenic,		0.1
Oxalic,	30.	100.
Suberic,	0.69	50.
Succinic,	4.	50.
Tartarous,	Very soluble.	
SALIFIABLE BASES.		
Barytes,	5	50.
crystallized,	57	Unlimited.
Lime,	0.2	
Potash,	Very soluble.	
Soda,	Very soluble.	
Strontites,	0.6	
crystallized,	1.9	50.
SALTS.		
Acetate of ammonia,	Very soluble.	
barytes,	do.	
lime,	do.	
magnesia,	do.	
potash,	100.	
soda,	Very soluble.	
strontites,		40.
Carbonate of ammonia,	+ 50.	100.
barytes,	Insoluble.	
lime,	Insoluble.	
magnesia,	2	
potash,	25	83.
soda,	50.	+ 100.
strontites,	Insoluble.	

TABLE OF THE SOLUBILITY OF SALTS. XXXVII

TABLE of the Solubility of Salts in Water.—Continued.

NAMES OF SALTS.	Solubility in 100 Parts Water	
	At 60°.	At 212°.
SALTS.		
Camphorate of ammonia,	1.	33.
barytes,	0.16	
lime,	0.5	
potash,	33.	+ 33.
Citrate of soda,	60.	
lime,	Insoluble.	
Hyper-oxy muriate of barytes,	25.	+ 25.
mercury,	25.	
potash,	6.	40.
soda,	35.	+ 35.
Muriate of ammonia,	33.	100.
barytes,	20.	+ 20.
lead,	4.5	
lime,	200.	
magnesia,	100.	
mercury,	5.	50.
potash,	33.	
silver,	0.1-30	
soda,	35-42	36.16
strontites,	150.	Unlimited
Nitrate of ammonia,	50.	200.
barytes,	8.	25.
lime,	400.	
magnesia,	100.	+ 100.
potash,	14.25	100.
soda,	33.	+ 100.
strontites,	100.	200.
Oxalate of strontites,	0.1-19	
Phosphate of ammonia,	25.	+ 25.
barytes,	0.	0.
lime,	0.	0.
magnesia,	6.6	
potash,	Very soluble.	
soda,	25.	50.
strontites,	0.	0.
Phosphite of ammonia,	50.	+ 50.
barytes,	0.4	
potash,	33.	+ 33.
Sulphate of ammonia,	50.	100.
barytes,	0.002	
copper,	25.	50.
iron,	50.	+ 100.

TABLE OF THE SOLUBILITY OF SALTS.

TABLE of the Solubility of Salts in Water—Continued.

NAMES OF SALTS.	Solubility in 100 Parts Water	
	At 60°.	At 212°.
SALTS.		
Sulphate of lead,	0.1-12	
lime,	0.2	0.24
magnesia,	100.	133.
potash,	6.25	20.
soda,	37.	125.
strontites,	0.	0.02
Sulphite of ammonia,	100.	
lime,	0.125	
magnesia,	5.	
potash,	100.	
soda,	25.	100.
Saccharate of potash,		12.
soda,		20.
Sub-borate of soda (borax),	8.4	16.2
Super-sulphate of alumina and potash (alum),	5.	133.
potash,	50.	+ 100.
Super-oxalate of potash,		10.
tartrate of potash,	1 $\frac{2}{3}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Tartrate of potash,	25.	
and soda,	20.	
antimony and potash,	6.6	33.

2.—Table of Substances Soluble in Alcohol.

NAMES OF SUBSTANCES.	Tempe- rature.	100 parts Al- cohol dissolve
Acetate of copper,	176°	7.5
soda,	176°	46.
Arsenate of potash,	do.	3.75
soda,	do.	1.7
Boracic acid,	do.	20.
Camphor,	do.	75.
Muriate of ammonia,	do.	7.
alumine,	54½°	100.
copper,	176°	100.
iron,	176°	100.
lime,	do.	100.
magnesia,	do.	547.
mercury,		88.3
zinc,	54½°	100.
Nitrate of ammonia,	176°	89.2
alumine,	54½°	100.
cobalt,	54½	100.
lime,		125.
potash,	176°	2.9
silver,	do.	41.7
Succinic acid,	do.	74.
Sugar, refined,	do.	24½
Superoxalate of potash,	-	3.
Tartrate of potash,	-	0.04

OTHER SUBSTANCES SOLUBLE IN ALCOHOL. All the acids, except the sulphuric, nitric, and oxy-muriatic, which decompose it, and the phosphoric and metallic acids—Potash, soda, and ammonia, very soluble. Soaps; extract; tan; volatile oils; adipocire; resins; urea.

SUBSTANCES INSOLUBLE, OR VERY SPARINGLY SOLUBLE IN ALCOHOL. Earths; phosphoric and metallic acids; almost all sulphates and carbonates; the nitrates of lead and mercury; the muriates of lead, silver, and soda, (the last, *per* Chenevix, sparingly soluble); the sub-borate of soda; the tartrate of soda and potash, and super-tartrate of potash; fixed oils; wax; starch; gum; caoutchouc; woody fibre; gelatine; albumen, and gluten.

3.—KIRWAN'S TABLE, *Shewing the Composition of Salts.*

COMPONENT PARTS.

SALTS.	BASIS.	ACID.	WATER.	STATE.
Carbonate of potash	47.	43.	16.	Crystallized.
Pearl-ash	60.	30.	6.	Dry.
Carbonate of soda	31.58	14.4	64.	Fully crystallized.
ditto	39.86	40.00	.	Decalcified.
barytes	78.	22.	.	Natural or ignited.
strontian	69.5	30.	.	Natural or ignited.
lime	55.	41.	.	Natural or pure, or artificial ignited.
magnesia	25.	10.	15.	Crystallized.
common ditto	45.	4	21.	Dried at 80°.
Sulphate of potash	24.8	45.2	.	Dry.
soda	18.48	23.52	58.	Fully crystallized.
ditto	44.	36.	.	Decalcified at 700°.
ammonia	14.24	14.61	31.1	.
barytes	66.66	33.33	.	.
strontian	58.	42.	.	Natural and pure, artificial ignited.
lime	32.	46.	22.	Natural and pure, artificial ignited.
ditto	35.23	50.19	14.58	Dried at 66°.
ditto	38.81	55.84	5.35	Dried at 170°.
ditto	41.	59	.	Ignited.
magnesia	17.	29.33	53.65	Incandescent.
ditto	36.68	61.11	.	Fully crystallized.
Alum	12.	17.66	51.	Decalcified.
Ditto	63.78	36.25	of crystals + 19.24 in the earth	Crystallized.
				Decalcified at 300°.

TABLE, Shewing the Composition of Salts,—Continued.

COMPONENT PARTS.

SALT.	BASE.	ACID.	WATER.	STATE.
Nitrate of potash	51.8	44.	4.2 of composition.	Dried at 70°.
acids	40.58	53.21	6.21 of composition.	Dried at 400°.
ditto	42.34	57.55		Ignited.
ammonia	23.	57.	20.	
barytes	57.	32.	11.	Crystallized.
strontian	36.21	31.07	32.72	Crystallized.
lime	22.	57.44	10.56	Well dried, then in air.
magnesia	22.	46.	32.	Crystallized.
Muriate of potash	64.	36.		Dried at 80°.
acids	53.	47.		Crystallized.
ammonia		aqueous, 38.88 real		Sublimed.
ditto	25.	42.75	32.25	Crystallized.
barytes	64.	20.	16.	Desiccated.
ditto	76.3	33.8		Crystallized.
strontian	40.	18.	42.	Desiccated.
ditto	69.	31.		Desiccated.
lime	50.	42.	8.	Red hot.
magnesia	31.07	34.59	34.34	Sensibly dry.

M m m

4.—Table of Incompatible Salts.*

SALTS.	INCOMPATIBLE WITH
1. Fixed alkaline sulphates . . .	{ Nitrates of lime and magnesia, Muriates of lime and magnesia.
2. Sulphate of lime . . .	{ Alkalies, Carbonate of magnesia, Muriate of barytes.
3. Alum	{ Alkalies, Muriate of barytes, Nitrate, muriate, carbonate of lime, Carbonate of Magnesia.
4. Sulphate of magnesia . . .	{ Alkalies, Muriate of barytes, Nitrate and muriate of lime.
5. Sulphate of iron . . .	{ Alkalies, Muriate of barytes, Earthy carbonates.
6. Muriate of barytes . . .	{ Sulphates, Alkaline carbonates, Earthy carbonates.
7. Muriate of lime . . .	{ Sulphates, except of lime, Alkaline carbonates, Carbonate of magnesia.
8. Muriate of magnesia . . .	{ Alkaline carbonates, Alkaline sulphates.
9. Nitrate of lime	{ Alkaline carbonates, Carbonates of magnesia and alumine, Sulphates, except of lime.



5.—Quantity of Real Acid taken up by mere Alkalies and Earths, (Kirwan.)

100 Parts.	Sulphuric.	Nitric.	Muriatic.	Carbonic Acid.
Potash.	82.48	84.96	56.3	105, almost.
Soda.	127.68	135.71	73.41	66.8.
Ammonia.	383.8	247.82	171.	Variable.
Baryt.	50.	56.	31.8	282.
Strontia.	72.41	85.56	46.	43.2.
Lime.	143.	179.5	84.488	81.81.
Magnesia.	172.64	210.	111.35	200, Fourcroy.
Alumine.	150.9			325, nearly, Bergman.

* That is, salts which cannot exist together in solution, without mutual decomposition.

6.—Quantity of Alkalies and Earths taken up by 100 parts of real Sulphuric, Nitric, Muriatic and Carbonic Acids, Saturated, (Kirwan.)

100 Parts.	Potash.	Soda.	Ammonia.	Baryt.	Strontia.	Lime.	Mag.
Sulphuric.	121,48	78,32	26,05	200,	138,	70,	57,92
Nitrous.	117,7	73,3	40,35	178,12	116,86	55,7	47,64
Muriatic.	177,6	136,2	58,48	314,46	216,21	118,3	898,
Carbonic.	95,1	149,6		354,5	231, +	122,	50,

7.—TABLE, by RICHTER, of the Quantity of each Base required for the Saturation of the different Acids, (From BERTHOLLET's Statique Chimique, 1re Partie, p. 136.)

The experiments, from which the following Table was deduced, we are assured by Berthollet, were the principal occupation of Richter from the year 1791 to 1800; and, from the attention with which they were performed, appear to be deserving of considerable confidence. An example will best explain the method of using the Table. Take the article *potash* in the first column, opposite to which is placed the number 1605. The numbers in the other column shew how much of each acid is required to saturate 1605 parts of potash, viz. 427 parts of fluoric acid, 577 of carbonic acid, &c. In a similar manner, take any acid in the second column, the oxalic for instance: The first column shews how much of each base effects the saturation of 755 parts of oxalic acid, viz. 525 of alumine, 615 of magnesia, &c.

BASES.				ACIDS.			
Alumine	.	.	525	Fluoric	.	.	427
Magnesia	.	.	615	Carbonic	.	.	577
Ammonia	.	.	672	Sebacic	.	.	706
Lime	.	.	793	Muriatic	.	.	717
Soda	.	.	859	Oxalic	.	.	755
Strontites	.	.	1329	Phosphoric	.	.	979
Potash	.	.	1605	Formic	.	.	988
Barytes	.	.	2222	Sulphuric	.	.	1000
				Succinic	.	.	1209
				Nitric	.	.	1405
				Acetic	.	.	1480
				Citric	.	.	1563
				Tartarous	.	.	1694

8.—TABLE, *Shewing the Specific Gravity of Mixtures of Alcohol and Water.**

Centesimal parts of the Mixture.	SPECIFIC GRAVITIES.	
	According to Chausnier.	According to Gilpin, (last Table.)
Alcohol - 100	0.7980	0.825
95	0.8105	0.83887
90	0.8340	0.85244
85	0.8485	0.86414
80	0.8620	0.87606
75	0.87525	0.88762
70	0.8880	0.89883
65	0.9005	0.90941
60	0.9120	0.91981
55	0.9230	0.92961
50	0.9334	0.93882
45	0.94265	0.94726
40	0.9514	0.95493
35	0.95865	0.96158
30	0.96535	0.96736
25	0.97035	0.97239
20	0.97605	0.97723
15	0.9815	0.98113
10	0.9866	0.98737
5	0.99335	0.99327
0	0.99835	1.00000

9.—TABLE, *Shewing the Component Parts of Nitric Acid of different Colours and Densities, by Mr. DAVY.*

100 Parts.	Specific Grav.	COMPONENT PARTS.		
		Nitric Acid.	Water.	Nitrous Gas.
Solid nitric acid	1.504	91.55	8.45	—
Yellow nitrous	1.502	90.5	8.3	—
Bright yellow	1.500	88.94	8.10	2.96
Dark orange	1.480	86.84	7.6	5.56
Light olive	1.479	86.00	7.55	6.45
Dark olive	1.478	85.4	7.5	7.1
Bright green	1.476	84.8	7.44	7.76
Blue green	1.475	84.6	7.4	8.00

* Chausnier's alcohol had the specific gravity of 0.798; and Gilpin's, that of 0.825. The Tables of Gilpin are to be found in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1794.

No. IV.

I.—TABLE, *Shewing some of the Qualities of Metals; the Proportion of Oxygen with which they Combine; and the Colours of their Oxides, (Compiled from two of the Tables in Thomson's Chemistry.)*

<i>Metals.</i>	<i>Colour.</i>	<i>Specific Grav.</i>	<i>Fusing Point.</i>	<i>No. of Oxides.</i>	<i>Colours of Oxides.</i>	<i>Proper. of Oxygen.</i>
Gold	Yellow	19.361	32 W.	1 2	Purple Yellow	10.
Platina	White	23.000	+ 170 W.	1 2	Green Brown	.74 0.15
Palladium	White	11.871	+ 160 W.	1 2	Blue Yellow ?	
Rhodium	White	+ 11.	+ 160 W.	1 2	Yellow	
Iridium	White		+ 160 W.	1 2	Blue ? Red ?	
Osmium	Blue			1	Trans- parent	
Silver	White	10.510	22 W.	1 2	Olive	12.8
Mercury	White	12.568	—39 F.	1 2 3	Black Red	5. 11.
Copper	Red	8.895	27 W.	1 2	Red Black	13. 25.
Iron	Blue- grey	7.788	158 W.	1 2	Black Red	37. 92.3
Tin	White	7.299	442 F.	1 2	Grey White	25. 38.8

TABLE, Shewing some of the Qualities of Metals, &c.—
Continued.

<i>Metals.</i>	<i>Colour.</i>	<i>Specific Grav.</i>	<i>Fusing Point.</i>	<i>No. of Oxides.</i>	<i>Colours of Oxides.</i>	<i>Proport. of Oxygen.</i>
Lead	Bluish-white	11.352	612 F.	1		
				2	Yellow	10.6
				3		13.6
				4	Brown	25.
Nickel	White	8.666	+160 W.	1	Green	28.
				2	Black	
Zinc	White	6.861	680 F.	1	Yellow	13.6
				2	White	25.
Bismuth	White	9.822	476 F.	1		
				2	Yellow	12.
Antimony	Grey	6.712	809 F.	1	White	22.7
				2	Ditto	30.
Arsenic	White	8.310	+400 F.?	1	White	33.
				2	White (acid)	53.
Cobalt	White	7.700	130 W.	1	Blue	
				2	Green	
				3	Black	
Manganese	White	6.850	+160 W.	1	White	25.
				2	Red	35.
				3	Black	66.6
Molybdena	Grey	8.600	+170 W.	1	Light-brown	
				2	Violet	
				3	Blue	34.
				4	White	50.
Tellurium	White	6.115	+612 F.		White	
Tungsten	Greyish-white	17.6	+170 W.	1	Black	
				2	Yellow	25.
Uranium	Grey	9.000	+170 W.	1	Black	5.17
				2	Yellow	28.

TABLE, Shewing some of the Qualities of Metals, &c.—
Continued.

<i>Metals.</i>	<i>Colour.</i>	<i>Specific Grav.</i>	<i>Fusing Point.</i>	<i>No. of Oxides.</i>	<i>Colours of Oxides.</i>	<i>Proport. of Oxygen.</i>
Titanium	Red		+170° W.	1 2 3	Blue Red White	
Chromium	White		+170° W.	1 2 3	Green Brown Red	200.
Columbium					White	
Tantalum					White	
Cerium	White			1 2	White Red	

N. B.—The numbers, in the last column of the foregoing Table, denote the quantity of oxygen with which 100 parts of each metal combine. Thus, to form the black oxide of iron, 100 parts of the metal absorb 37 oxygen, and afford 137 of an oxide, which, in 100 parts, contain 27 of oxygen.—In the column shewing the fusing point, W. added to the numerals, denote the degrees of Wedgwood's pyrometer, and F. those of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

xlviii PRECIPITATES FROM METALLIC SOLUTIONS.

2.—Colour of the Precipitates thrown down from Metallic Solutions, by various Re-agents.

<i>Metals.</i>	<i>Prossiated Alkalies.</i>	<i>Tincture of Galls.</i>	<i>Water impregnated with Sulphuretted Hydrogen.</i>	<i>Hydro-Sulphuret.</i>
Gold	Yellowish-white.	Solution turned green. Precipitate brown of reduced gold.	Yellow.	Yellow.
Platina	No precip. : but an orange coloured one by prufs. of mercury.	Dark-green, becoming paler.	Precipitated as a metallic state.	
Silver	White.	Yellowish-brown.	Black.	Black.
Mercury	White changing to yellow.	Orange yellow.	Black.	Brownish-black.
Palladium	Olive.* Deep orange.†		Dark-brown.	Dark-brown.
Rhodium	No precip.			No precip.
Iridium	No precipitate. Colour discharged.	No precipitate. Colour of solutions discharged.		
Osmium		Purple, changing to deep vivid blue.		

* Chenevix.

† Wallaston.

PRECIPITATES FROM METALLIC SOLUTIONS. xlix

*Colour of Precipitates from Metallic Solutions, &c.,—
Continued.*

<i>Metals.</i>	<i>Prussiated Alkalies.</i>	<i>Tincture of Galls.</i>	<i>Water im- pregnated with Sulphu- retted Hydro- gen.</i>	<i>Hydro-Sul- phurets.</i>
Copper	Bright red- dish-brown.	Brownish.	Black.	Black.
Iron. { 1. Green salts 2. Red salts.	White, changing to blue. Deep blue.	No precipi- tate. Black.	Not preci- pitated.	Black.
Nickel	Green.	Greyish- white.	Not preci- pitated.	Black.
Tin	White.	No precip.	Brown.	Black.
Lead	White.	White.	Black.	Black.
Zinc	White.	No precip.	Yellow.	White.
Bismuth	White.	Orange.	Black.	Black.
Antimony	White.	A white ox- ide merely from dilu- tion.	Orange.	Orange.
Tellurium	No precip.	Yellow.		Blackish.
Arsenic	White.	Little change.	Yellow.	Yellow.
Cobalt	Brownish- yellow.	Yellowish- white.	Not preci- pitated.	Black.
Manganese	Yellowish- white.	No precip.	Not preci- pitated.	White.
Chrome	Green.	Brown.		Green.
Molybdena	Brown.	Deep- brown.	Brown.	

3.—TABLE, *Shewing the Maximum Quantity of Oxygen taken up by different Substances.*

SIMPLE COMBUSTIBLES.

100 Hydrogen unite with	597.7	Oxygen.
100 Carbon	257.	
100 Azote	236.	
100 Muriatic Acid	194	
100 Phosphorus	154	
100 Sulphur	71.3	

METALS.

100 Chrome combine with	200.	Oxygen.
100 Iron	72.3	
100 Manganese	66.	
100 Arsenic	52.	
100 Tin	32.2	
100 Antimony	30.	
100 Zinc	}	24.
100 Copper		
100 Lead		
100 Tungsten		
100 Mercury		22.8
100 Platina		22.
100 Silver		22.2
100 Bismuth		22.
100 Gold		22.

I PRECIPITATES FROM METALLIC SOLUTIONS.

*Colour of Precipitates from Metallic Solutions, &c,—
Continued.*

<i>Metals.</i>	<i>Precipitated Alkalies.</i>	<i>Tincture of Galls.</i>	<i>Water im- pregnated with Sulphu- ricated Hydro- gen.</i>	<i>Hydro-Sul- phuric.</i>
Uranium	Brownish- red.	Chocolate.		Brownish- yellow.
Tungsten				
Titanium	Grass-green, with a tinge of brown.	Reddish- brown.	Not preci- pitated.	Grass-green.
Columbium	Olive.	Orange.		Chocolate.
Tantalum				
Cerium		Yellowish.		Brown, be- coming deep green.

3.—TABLE, *Shewing the Maximum Quantity of Oxygen taken up by different Substances.*

SIMPLE COMBUSTIBLES.

100 Hydrogen unite with	597.7 Oxygen.
100 Carbon	257.
100 Azote	236.
100 Muriatic Acid	194.
100 Phosphorus	154.
100 Sulphur	71.3

METALS.

100 Chrome combine with	200. Oxygen.
100 Iron	92.3
100 Manganese	66.
100 Arsenic	53.
100 Tin	38.8
100 Antimony	30.
100 Zinc	}	25.
100 Copper		
100 Lead		
100 Tungsten		
100 Mercury	17.6
100 Platina	15.
100 Silver	12.8
100 Bismuth	12.
100 Gold	10.

No. V.

TABLES OF SIMPLE AFFINITY.

Oxygen.	Molybdena, Tungsten, Cobalt, Antimony, Nickel, Arsenic, Chromium, Bismuth, Lead, Copper, Tellurium, Platina, Mercury, Silver, Gold.	Sulphur. Phosphorus?	Sulphur.
Carbon, Charcoal, Manganese, Zinc, Iron, Tin, Antimony, Hydrogen, Phosphorus, Sulphur, Arsenic, Nitrogen, Nickel, Cobalt, Copper, Bismuth, Caloric? Mercury, Silver, Arsenous acid, Nitric oxide, Gold, Platina, Carbonic oxide, Muriatic acid, White oxide of Manganese. White oxide of Lead.		Potash, Soda, Iron, Copper, Tin, Lead, Silver, Bismuth, Antimony, Mercury, Arsenic, Molybdena.	Barytes. Acids. Sulphuric, Oxalic, Succinic, Fluoric, Phosphoric, Mucic, Nitric, Muriatic, Suberic, Citric, Tartaric, Arsenic, Lactic, Benzoic, Acetic, Boracic, Sulphurous, Nitrous, Carbonic, Prussic Sulphur, Phosphorus, Water, Fixed Oils
	Carbon.	Potash, Soda, and Ammonia.	
	Oxygen, Iron, Hydrogen.	Acids. Sulphuric, Nitric, Muriatic, Phosphoric, Fluoric, Oxalic, Tartaric, Arsenic, Succinic, Citric, Lactic, Benzoic, Sulphurous, Acetic, Mucic, Boracic, Nitrous, Carbonic, Prussic, Oil, Water,	
	Nitrogen.		
	Oxygen, Sulphur? Phosphorus, Hydrogen.		
Oxygen.*	Hydrogen.		
Titanium, Manganese, Zinc, Iron, Tin, Uranium,	Oxygen, Sulphur, Carbon, Phosphorus, Nitrogen.		Strontites. Acids. Sulphuric, Phosphoric, Oxalic, Tartaric, Fluoric, Nitric, Muriatic, Succinic, Acetic, Arsenic.

* Vauquelin's Table of the affinity of the metals for oxygen, according to the difficulty with which their oxides are decomposed by heat.

Table of Simple Affinity,—Continued.

<i>Acids.</i> Boracic, Carbonic, Water.	<i>Acids.</i> Nitric, Muriatic, Tartaric, Citric, Malic ? Lactic, Benzoic, Acetic, Boracic, Sulphurous, Nitrous, Carbonic, Prussic, Sulphur.	<i>Oxide of Platina.</i> —— <i>Gold.</i> *	<i>Oxide of Mer-</i> <i>cury.</i>
<i>Lime.</i>		Gallic acid, Muriatic, Nitric, Sulphuric, Arsenic, Fluoric, Tartaric, Phosphoric, Oxalic, Citric, Acetic, Succinic, Prussic, Carbonic, Ammonia.	Gallic acid, Muriatic, Oxalic, Succinic, Arsenic, Phosphoric, Sulphuric, Mucic, Tartaric, Citric, Malic, Sulphurous, Nitric, Fluoric, Acetic, Benzoic, Boracic, Prussic, Carbonic.
<i>Acids.</i> Oxalic, Sulphuric, Tartaric, Succinic, Phosphoric, Mucic, Nitric, Muriatic, Suberic, Fluoric, Arsenic, Lactic, Citric, Malic, Benzoic, Acetic, Boracic, Sulphurous, Nitrous, Carbonic, Prussic, Sulphur, Phosphorus, Water, Fixed oil.	<i>Alumina.</i>	<i>Oxide of Silver.</i>	<i>Oxide of Lead.</i>
	<i>Acids.</i> Sulphuric, Nitric, Muriatic, Oxalic, Arsenic, Fluoric, Tartaric, Succinic, Mucic, Citric, Phosphoric, Lactic, Benzoic, Acetic, Boracic, Sulphurous, Nitrous, Carbonic, Prussic.	Gallic acid, Muriatic, Oxalic, Sulphuric, Mucic, Phosphoric, Sulphurous, Nitric, Arsenic, Fluoric, Tartaric, Citric, Lactic, Succinic, Acetic, Prussic, Carbonic, Ammonia.	Gallic, Sulphuric, Mucic, Oxalic, Arsenic, Tartaric, Phosphoric, Muriatic, Sulphurous, Suberic, Nitric, Fluoric, Citric, Malic, Succinic, Lactic, Acetic,
<i>Magnesia.</i>			
<i>Acids.</i> Oxalic, Phosphoric, Sulphuric, Fluoric, Arsenic, Mucic, Succinic,	<i>Silex.</i>		
	Fluoric acid, Potash.		

* Omitting the oxalic, citric, succinic, and carbonic, and adding sulphuretted hydrogen after ammonia.

Table of Simple Affinity,—Continued.

Benzoic, Boracic, Prussic, Carbonic, Fixed oils, Ammonia.	Citric, Acetic, Prussic, Fixed alkalies, Ammonia, Fixed oils, Water.	Mucic, Citric, Lactic, Acetic, Boracic, Prussic, Ammonia.	Citric, Succinic, Fluoric, Arsenic, Lactic, Acetic, Boracic, Prussic, Fixed alkalies, Ammonia.
<i>Oxide of Copper.</i>	<i>Oxide of Iron.</i>	<i>Oxide of Zinc.</i>	
Gallic, Oxalic, Tartaric, Muriatic, Sulphuric, Mucic, Nitric, Arsenic, Phosphoric, Succinic, Fluoric, Citric, Lactic, Acetic, Boracic, Prussic, Carbonic, Fixed alkalies, Ammonia, Fixed oils.	Gallic, Oxalic, Tartaric, Camphoric, Sulphuric, Mucic, Muriatic, Nitric, Phosphoric, Arsenic, Fluoric, Succinic, Citric, Lactic, Acetic, Boracic, Prussic, Carbonic.	Gallic, Oxalic, Sulphuric, Muriatic, Mucic, Nitric, Tartaric, Phosphoric, Citric, Succinic, Fluoric, Arsenic, Lactic, Acetic, Boracic, Prussic, Carbonic, Fixed alkalies, Ammonia.	<i>Sulphureous Acid.</i> <i>Prussic†.</i> Barytes, Strontites, Potash, Soda, Lime, Magnesia, Ammonia, Glucine, Yttria, Alumene, Zircon, Metallic oxides.
<i>Oxide of Arsenic.</i>	<i>Oxide of Tin.*</i>	<i>Oxide of Antimony.</i>	<i>Sulphureous Acid.</i> <i>Succinic‡.</i>
Gallic, Muriatic, Oxalic, Sulphuric, Nitric, Tartaric, Phosphoric, Fluoric, Succinic,	Gallic, Muriatic, Sulphuric, Oxalic, Tartaric, Arsenic, Phosphoric, Nitric, Succinic, Fluoric,	Gallic, Muriatic, Benzoic, Oxalic, Sulphuric, Nitric, Tartaric, Mucic, Phosphoric,	Barytes, Lime, Potash, Soda, Strontites, Magnesia, Ammonia, Glucine, Alumene, Zircon, Metallic oxides.

* Bergman places the tartaric before the muriatic.

† With the omission of all after ammonia.

‡ Ammonia should come before magnesia; and strontites, glucine, and zircon, should be omitted

TABLE OF AFFINITY.

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Table of Simple Affinity,—Continued.

Phosphoric Acid. Carbonic*. Barytes, Strontites, Lime, Potash, Soda, Ammonia, Magnesia, Glucine, Alumine, Zircon, Metallic oxides, Silix.	Lime, Magnesia, Ammonia, Glucine, Alumine, Zircon, Metallic oxides.	Metallic oxides, Glucine, Alumine, Zircon.	Soda, Barytes, Ammonia, Alumine, Magnesia.
	Fluoric Acid. Boracic —†. Arsenic —‡. Tungstic —	Oxalic Acid. Tartaric — Citric —¶.	Fixed Oil. Lime, Barytes, Potash, Soda, Magnesia, Oxide of Mercury, Other metallic ox- ides, Alumine.
Phosphorous Acid. Lime, Barytes, Strontites, Potash, Soda, Ammonia, Glucine, Alumine, Zircon, Metallic oxides.	Lime, Barytes, Strontites, Magnesia, Potash, Soda, Ammonia, Glucine, Alumine, Zircon, Silix.	Lime, Barytes, Strontites, Magnesia, Potash, Soda, Ammonia, Alumine, Metallic oxides, Water, Alcohol.	Alcohol. Water, Ether, Volatile Oil. Alkaline Sulphu- rets.
	Acetic Acid. Lactic — Suberic —§.	Benzoic Acid. White oxide of Arsenic, Potash, Soda, Ammonia, Barytes, Lime, Magnesia, Alumine.	Sulphuretted Hydrogen. Barytes, Potash, Soda, Lime, Ammonia, Magnesia, Zircon.
Nitric Acid. Muriatic —†. Barytes, Potash, Soda, Strontites,	Barytes, Potash, Soda, Strontites, Lime, Ammonia, Magnesia,	Camphoric Acid. Lime, Potash,	

* Magnesia should stand above ammonia, and alumina and silica should be omitted.

† Ammonia should stand above magnesia.

‡ Silix should be omitted, and, instead of it, water and alcohol be inserted.

§ Except silica.

¶ With the omission of strontites, metallic oxides, glucine, and zircon.

¶ Zircon after alumine.

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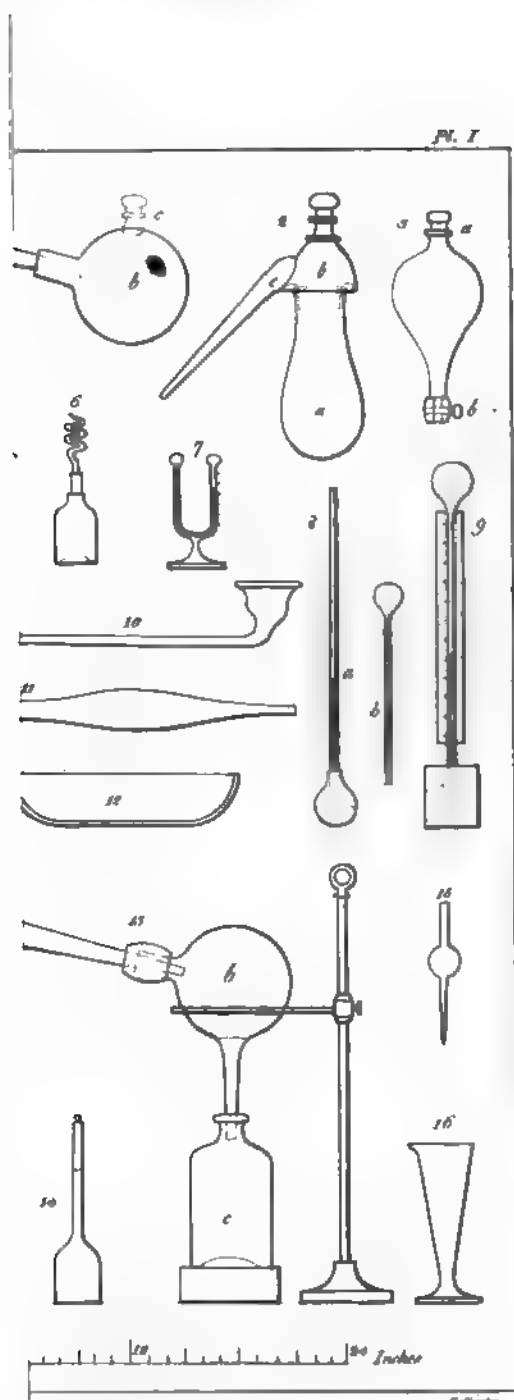
LIST OF ELEMENTARY BOOKS

ON

CHEMISTRY.

The following list comprehends a selection of a few elementary works on chemistry, which are sufficient for the purpose of the general reader. The catalogue of a complete chemical library would have occupied too much room, and perhaps would not have been of much utility.

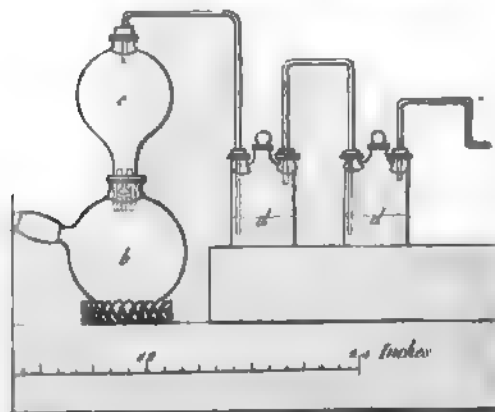
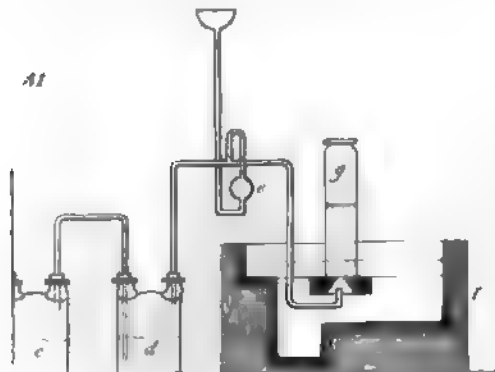
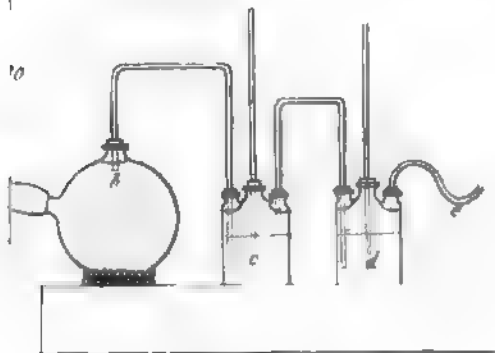
1. Lavoisier's Elements of Chemistry, 8vo.
2. ——— Works from the French, by Henry, 1 vol. 8vo. and a pamphlet.
3. Chaptal's Elements of Chemistry, 3 vols. 8vo.
4. Nicholson's First Principles of Chemistry, 8vo.
5. ——— Chemical Dictionary, 2 vols. 4to.
6. Thomson's Translation of Fourcroy's Chemistry, 3 vols. 8vo.
7. Gren's Principles of Chemistry, 2 vols. 8vo.
8. La Grange's Manual of Chemistry, 2 vols. 8vo.
9. Pearson's Chemical Nomenclature, second edition, 4to.
10. Parkinson's Chemical Pocket-book
11. Nicholson's Philosophical Journal, published monthly.
12. Philosophical Magazine, published monthly.
13. A System of Chemistry, by Thomas Thomson, M. D. 4 vols. 8vo
14. Elements of Chemistry, by J. Murray, 2 vols. 8vo.
15. Remarks on Chemical Nomenclature, by R. Chenevix, Esq. F. R. S &c.
16. Dr. Black's Lectures on the Elements of Chemistry, 2 vols. 4to.
17. Accum's System of Chemistry, 2 vols. 8vo.
18. Fourcroy's System of Chemical Knowledge, 10 vols. 8vo.



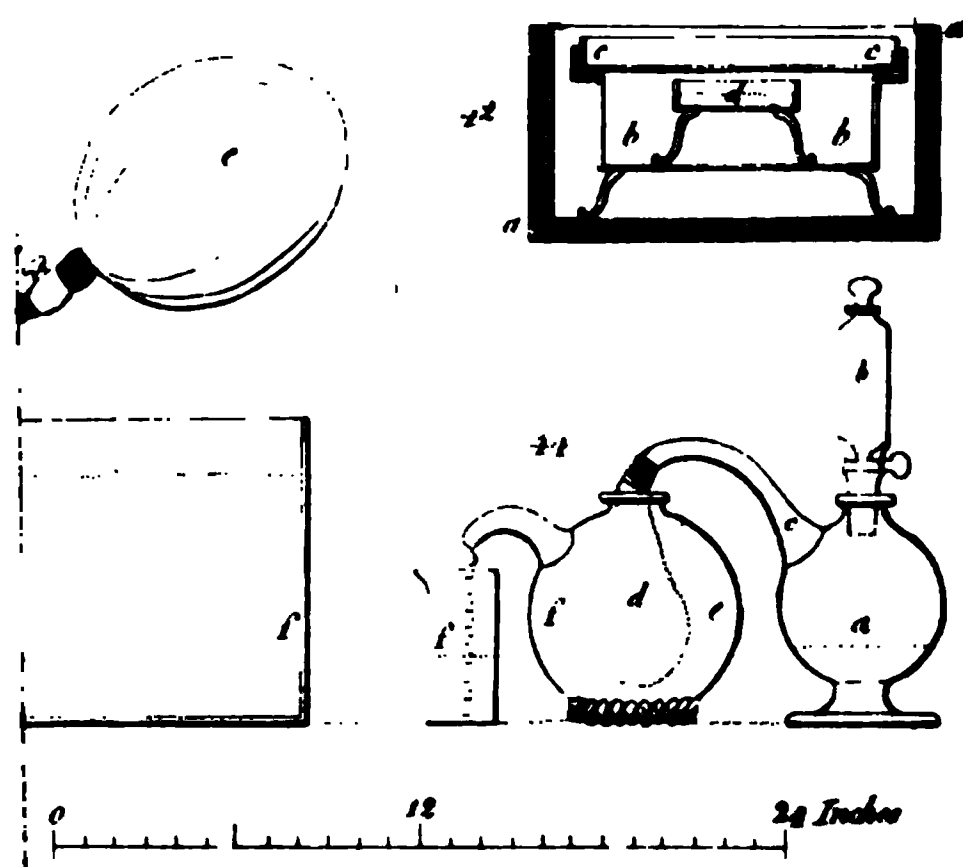
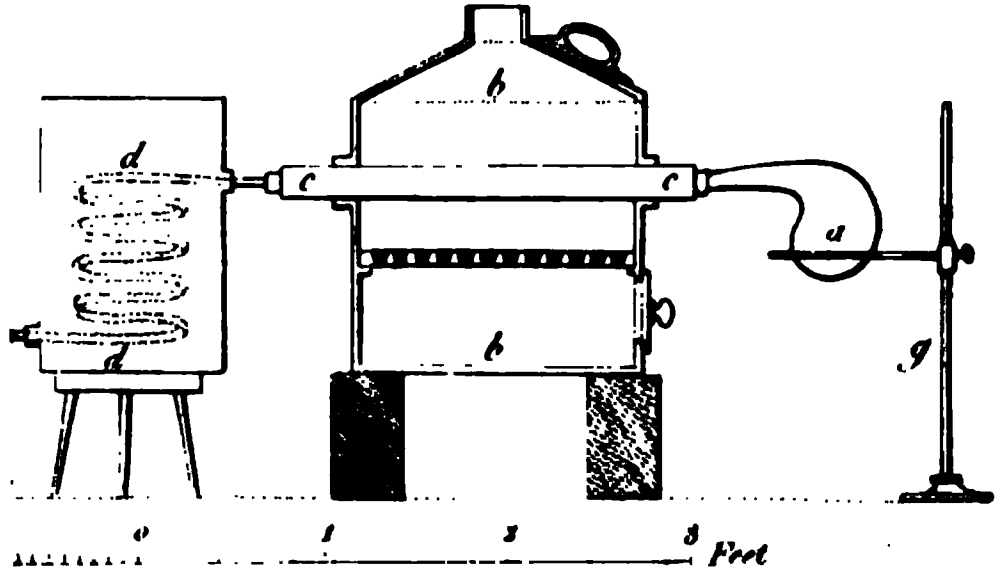
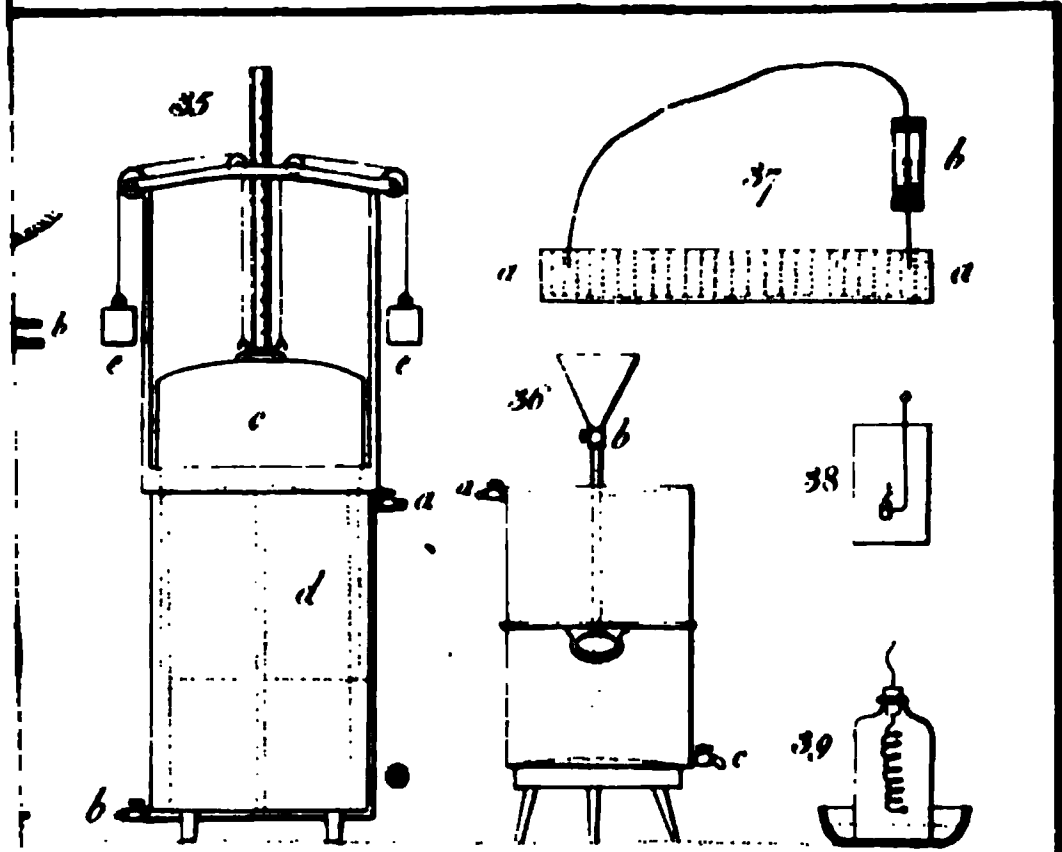
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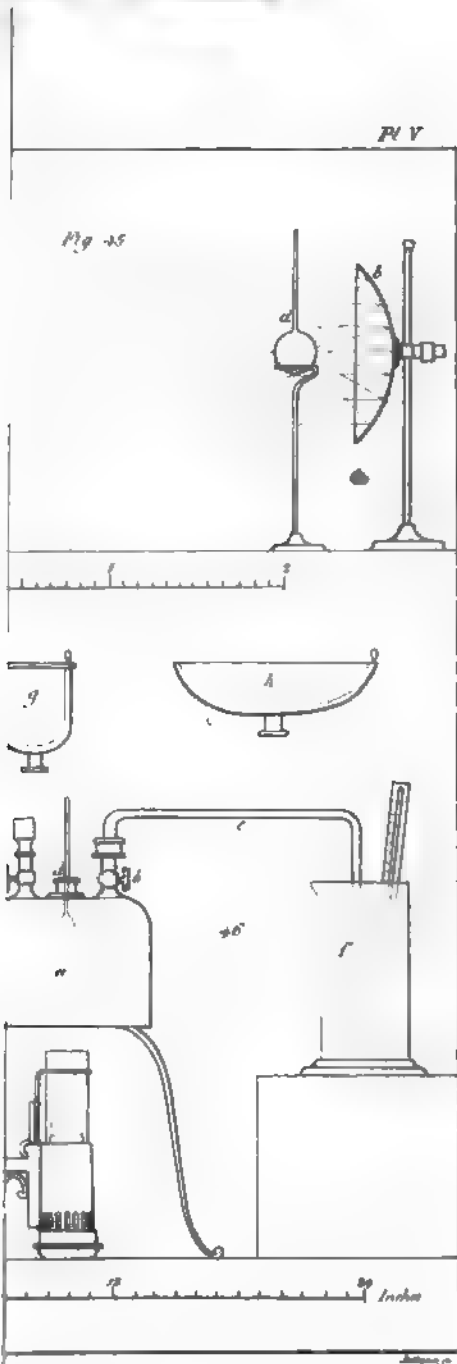


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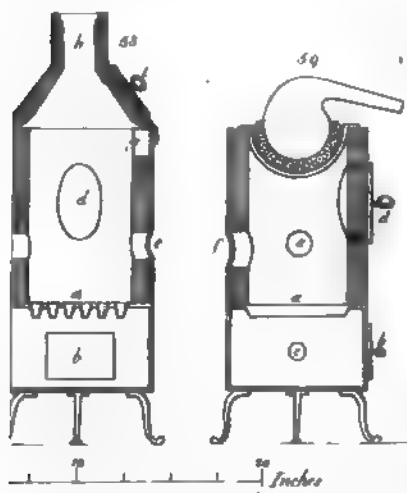
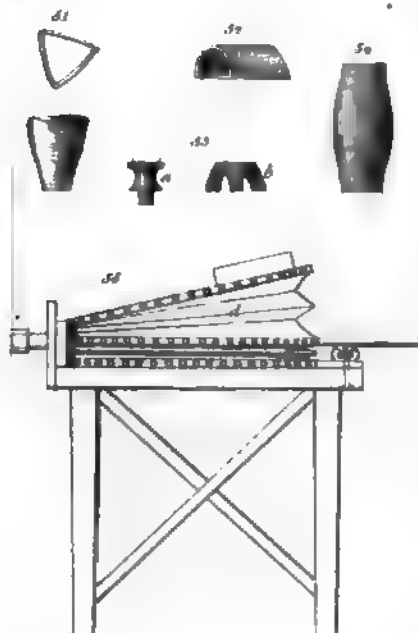


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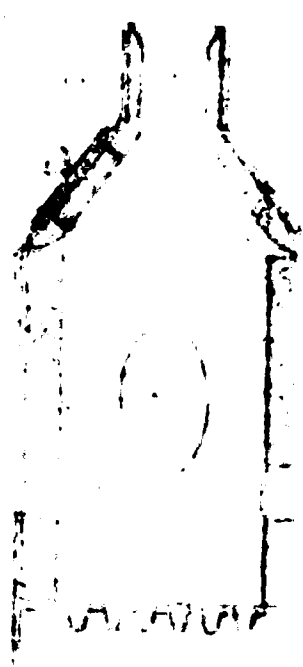
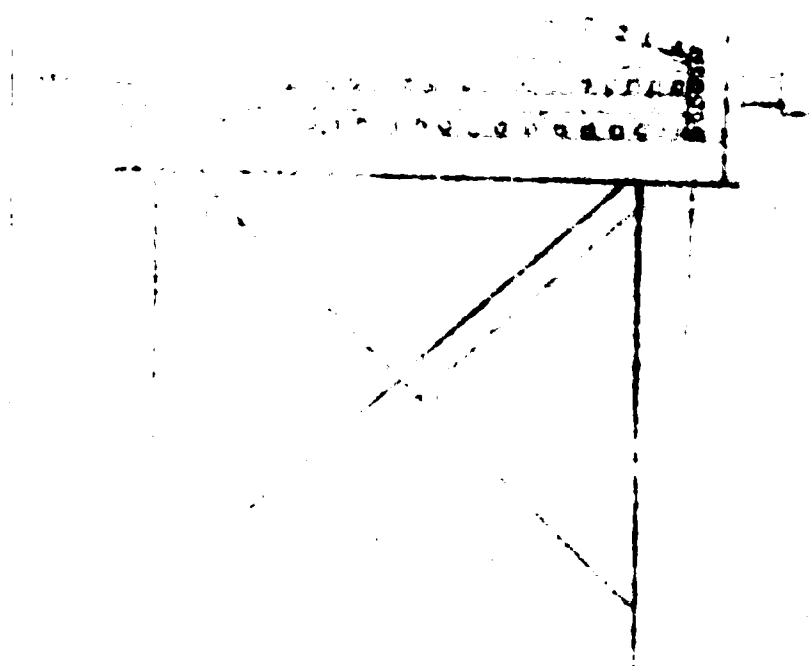




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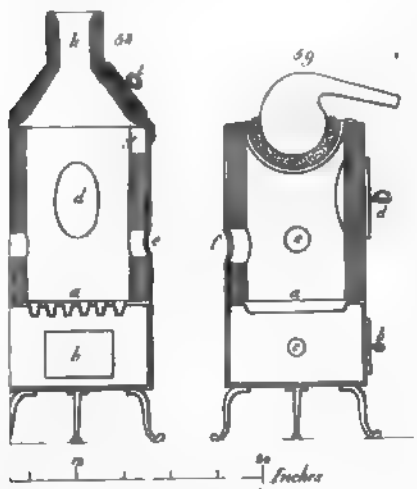
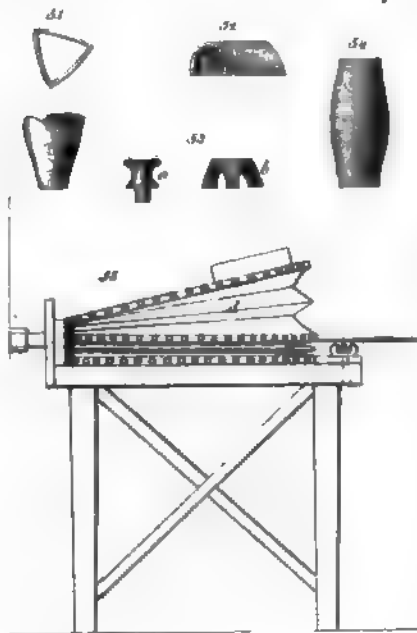


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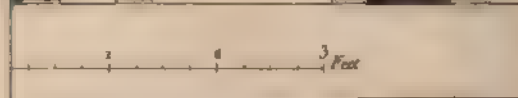
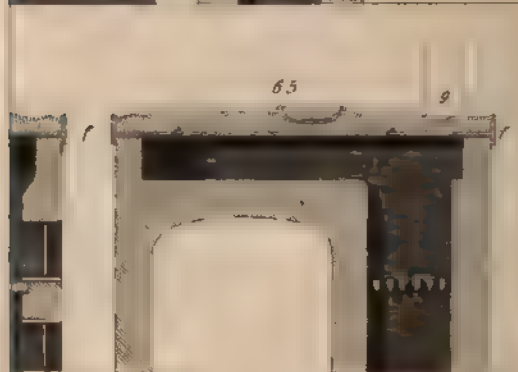
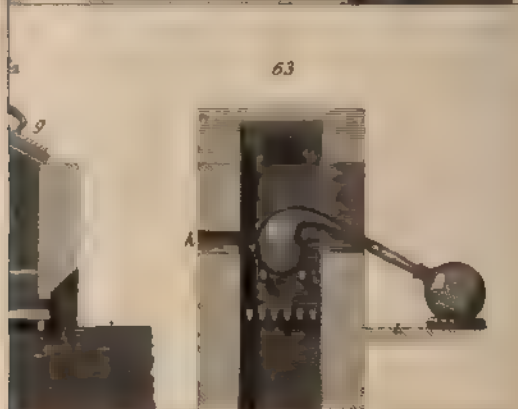


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NOTES

TO HENRY'S CHEMISTRY.

NOTE I. Page 26. INTRODUCTION.

THE argument which the author has so successfully urged with respect to his own country, admits of a still more forcible application to this, Chemistry is here almost a new pursuit, and hence it is not uncommon to find even intelligent men manifesting an entire ignorance of its nature and utility.

Happily the increasing taste for the science, which is indicated by our augmenting sources of chemical information, gives good grounds to hope that this species of knowledge will soon be extensively diffused.

Chemistry is at present publicly taught, in the University of Pennsylvania, at Philadelphia; in the College of New-Jersey; in Columbia College, and in the College of Physicians and Surgeons, in the city of New-York; in Yale College, at New-Haven; in Dartmouth College, at Hanover, New-Hampshire; in Harvard University, at Cambridge; and we are informed, that provision is making for introducing this science into the Colleges of South-Carolina and Georgia; not to mention occasional courses of popular lectures delivered in our large commercial towns. Possessing, as the United States do, a very extensive territory, embracing every variety of surface and of internal structure, the greater part of which is scarcely explored, there can be no doubt that important sources of individual and national wealth are yet to be opened, by chemical and mineralogical enterprise.

We must regard it as not less a national reproach, than it certainly is a national loss, that most of the products of the chemical arts are imported into this country from Europe. It would be easy to establish this position by an extensive induction of particulars. It may be mentioned, however, that our own potashes are exported to Europe, and there in a great measure manufactured into glass, which comes to us for the supply of our houses, while we have sand, (the other ingredient of glass) in abundance. It is true, we have now several manufactories of glass, but they attempt little beyond the coarser productions of the art, and afford nothing like an adequate supply of these.

Till lately, not a pound of sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol) could be procured except from Europe; most of our pigments and medicines are derived from the same source, and most of those who compound and vend, and too many of those who administer the latter, are ignorant of their chemical properties. At this moment not a vessel of porcelain is manufactured within the United States, and it is not easy to procure even a

stone bottle, of domestic manufacture, which is impervious to the united pressure of fluids and condensed gases.

Under such circumstances it is easy to see, that the practice of chemistry, even for philosophical purposes, must be attended with difficulties of no small magnitude, but those very difficulties prove more conclusively than any mere reasonings could do, the absolute necessity of promoting chemical knowledge, and it may be confidently affirmed, that until intelligent chemists are trained up at home, and induced to attempt the introduction and extension of the CHEMICAL ARTS, the United States will never attain to that pinnacle of national superiority, which Great Britain and France owe more to the *successful cultivation and application of natural science*, than the one does to the prowess of her armies, or the other to the triumphs of her marine.

The limits of a note will not allow of that ample illustration of this subject, which is due to the great interests of this country, as connected with chemical science and chemical arts. On no subject whatever, is extensive national and individual patronage more needed than on this, and no where would it bring a more ample individual and national reward.

NOTE 2. Page 5. FURNACES.

Dr. Black's furnace was admirably adapted to the purpose which he had principally in view, which was the exact regulation of the heat; but it was very inconvenient for many operations, and wholly inapplicable to others of much importance. It has been recently so far modified in London, as to deserve the name under which it is sold, by Mr. Accum, of the universal furnace, for, with it, every chemical operation (in the small way,) may be performed. In the mean time, the principal purpose of its inventor is frustrated; but still, if a single furnace were to be selected, it should undoubtedly be this.

It may be useful to those for whom these notes are intended, and probably to others, to know that furnaces sufficiently good for most chemical operations, may be procured in New-Haven. Mr. Lyon will do the iron work, and Mr. Fenton, or Prince & Bradley, will make the fire brick and line them. A furnace constructed of thick sheet iron, of a cylindrical form, of about ten or twelve inches diameter in the clear, with two holes, one in each side, for the convenience of placing a tube across the furnace, with a chimney issuing out of the side, near the top, and furnished with an iron pot, let into the top, for a sand heat, is such an one as our workmen will execute with little difficulty. It will answer all very important purposes of private experiment, and if furnished with a support made by two perpendicular iron bars, attached to feet like those of andirons, connected at bottom by a cross-bar, and adapted to iron staples fixed in the sides of the furnace, so that this last may slide up and down upon the iron rods, and be fixed at any particular height by thumb screws, it will be found highly convenient.

The iron pots for the sand heat may be procured at Salisbury, Stafford, and every other place where hollow ware is cast, and the expense of the whole need not exceed ten or twelve dollars.

NOTE 3. Page 6. EVAPORATING VESSELS.

The want of apparatus is a principal difficulty with beginners, and espe-

cially in this country, and it will therefore be one object of these notes to point out simple contrivances by which these difficulties may be obviated. The author has in several parts of his work (page 70, line 4, &c.) alluded to some practices which will now be described more minutely.

The bottom of a broken retort or flask answers very well for an evaporating basin. The broken part may be removed by scratching the glass with a file, at the place where we wish it divided, and then applying a red hot iron to the place, till a crack is formed, which will follow the hot iron quite round, and may thus be led any where at pleasure. Another method is to tie a string, moistened with oil of turpentine, around the glass, and to set fire to it, holding the glass so that the flame may play on the line where we wish the division to take place; on applying cold water the glass will separate unless very thin. In this manner, a broken bottle may be converted into a plain or a tubulated air jar, according as the top or bottom has been broken; a retort's neck into a funnel or tube, and its bottom into an evaporating basin. A ragged edge may be removed from broken glass, by filing it or even cutting it with a pair of shears, *under water*. It is very material that it be under water.

Does this fluid, by its vis inertie, counteract the vibrations of the glass, arising from its elasticity, and thus render it less liable to fracture? Does the fact that water greatly facilitates the cutting, filing, or grinding of glass, whether immersed in, or merely moistened with that fluid, arise from any chemical, or merely from a mechanical action?

NOTE 4. Page 10. LUTES.

Finely powdered and sifted quick lime, with the white of an egg, forms an excellent lute. It must be applied with celerity, as it soon hardens. This lute will confine corrosive vapours, and endures most degrees of heat below redness very well. The best way of applying it, is to break one end of the egg, and as the white is beginning to run out, let it fall upon the part of the instrument to which the lute is to be applied. If carefully managed, the white will merely hang from the aperture in the egg, without separating, and by turning the instrument, it may be applied all around. Then, reversing the position of the egg, the remaining part of the white will run back into the shell, and may be kept for farther use. The lime may be applied by laying the instrument upon it, and turning it round and round, till it adheres at every part.

NOTE 5. Page 12. BLOW-PIPE.

The hydrostatic blow-pipe of Mr. Robert Hare, junior, in which the stream of air is propelled by a column of water, is much more convenient than the common table blow-pipe. A regular blast is maintained for a long time, while the operator is perfectly at liberty, nothing more being necessary than occasionally to give a few strokes with a lever. See Mr. Hare's Memoir, Tilloch's Magazine, and Annals of Chemistry.

NOTE 5. Page 12. BENDING TUBES.

Glass tubes may be bent in a common fire, or over a chafing-dish of live coals, and the angle is even more correct, and the tube less liable to break

than when they are bent at the blow-pipe. With the aid of tubes and corks very good gas bottles may be fitted up from common vials and flasks. The corks should be perforated with a red hot iron. A convenient instrument for this purpose, may be procured at the blacksmith's. It is merely a tapering rod of iron, two or three feet long, one third of an inch in diameter, at one end, and quite pointed at the other. It should be furnished with a handle of wood, or a ring of iron, to hold it by. This will save much time and trouble in the adjustment of gas bottles. A little beeswax, rubbed upon the tube, at the place where it is to be inserted into the cork, and warmed at the moment of insertion, insures the tightness of the juncture.

NOTE 6. Page 14. CRYSTALLIZATION.

Crystallization belongs to a great number of bodies. It is the act by which their particles arrange themselves into regular forms, reducible to some of the known mathematical figures. It is owing to the exertion of homogeneous affinity, or the attraction of aggregation. Solution by means of a menstruum, or fusion by means of caloric, is an indispensable preliminary to crystallization. In the former case, it is necessary to drive off part of the solvent by heat; in the latter, merely to allow the fluid to cool, in order that crystals may be formed. Certain circumstances are, however, necessary to be attended to in order to success. If the solvent be very rapidly expelled by the aid of a high temperature, or if the fused body be suddenly exposed to an intense cold, either a shapeless mass will be formed, or only confused and irregular crystals. In general, fine crystals are obtained only by slow evaporation and by slow cooling. Water and molten salts are examples of bodies that crystallize by a mere reduction of temperature; the salts are crystallized by diminishing the quantity of the solvent, that is, by evaporation, or by combining both of these principles, diminishing the solvent by evaporation and reducing the temperature; or, when a particular portion of a salt has been suspended by the aid of an elevated temperature, a simple reduction of temperature is sufficient, without evaporation. For, an elevated temperature increases the power of most solvents. Common salt, however, is dissolved in nearly equal quantities by cold as by hot water. No advantage is gained, therefore, in dissolving this salt, by the aid of heat, nor does a reduction of temperature cause it to crystallize. The only method in which this can be effected, is to diminish the quantity of the solvent. Hence the salt boilers crystallize this salt over the fire, by boiling away the water; on the contrary, a solution of nitre, made with heat, is suffered to cool, in order that it may crystallize. In both these cases, however, the fluid which remains may be made to afford more crystals by farther evaporation, until it is all dissipated.

The pressure of the air appears to favour crystallization, for, when a saturated solution of the sulphate of soda is made at a boiling heat in a matrass, and a cork inserted while it is still boiling, so as wholly to exclude the atmosphere, the solution will remain fluid on cooling, but on withdrawing the cork it will crystallize, especially if a crystal of the same salt have been dropped in, from which the crystallization may begin, for it is found that crystallization is much facilitated by supplying a nucleus, and Le Blanc, a Parisian apothecary, has even founded upon it a method of obtaining large and beautiful crystals.

In this example of the sudden crystallization of the sulphate of soda, we may notice also the development of caloric, which is in this particular case sudden and evident, and always takes place during crystallization, as

though the process is commonly so slow, that the rise of temperature is scarcely perceptible.

An increase of bulk is commonly an effect of crystallization, but sometimes the bulk is diminished, as in the case of mercury. Substances which have been deposited from an aqueous solution, always retain, intimately combined, a portion of water, which is called their *water of crystallization*. The efficacy of freezing mixtures is owing, in a considerable degree, to this water of crystallization, which, by becoming fluid, absorbs caloric. When the water of crystallization causes the salt to become fluid, with the aid of heat, the salt is said to suffer the *aqueous fusion*. When the water of crystallization escapes spontaneously, in consequence of exposure to the atmosphere, and of the attraction of the air, the salt is said to *effloresce*, for the crystalline form is destroyed, and the salt falls into powder. When the salt attracts water from the air, and becomes more or less fluid, it is said to *deliquesce*.

All bodies in crystallizing assume a determinate form. Thus the crystal of alum is an octahedron; that of common salt a cube; of the beryl, a hexahedral prism, &c. It must not be understood, however, that these forms are invariable. The same substance will sometimes assume one form, sometimes another, according to circumstances. But, to this *apparent* caprice there is a limit, for a given substance will always crystallize in one of a given number of forms, which are appropriate to it. What is the ultimate power which produces these remarkable effects, we are ignorant, but certain laws by which it operates have been recently developed, and have conducted to conclusions both singular and interesting. What had been conceived by Romé de L'Isle, and Bergman, has been ably demonstrated by Haüy; and it is proposed at this time to give the outlines of his theory of crystallization. It was intended, also, to give the figures necessary to demonstrate his ideas; but circumstances having rendered this inconvenient, reference may be had to the figures in Thomson and in Murray, and in Rees's Cyclopaedia, and to the more extended accounts there given of Haüy's theory. Those who would see it in all its details and applications, may refer to Haüy's Mineralogy, vol. i. ii.; the Annals of Chemistry, vol. xvii.; Philosophical Magazine, vol. i. and Nicholson's Journal, vol. ix. 8vo.

The accounts here given, will be sufficient to elucidate the subject to those who hear the lectures for which this work is adopted as a text book, and the demonstrations which are given in connection with the lectures, from the models of crystals, will render figures less necessary.

Haüy has demonstrated, "that in every crystallized substance, whatever may be the difference of figure which may arise from modifying circumstances, there is, in all its crystals, a primitive form, the nucleus, as it were, of the crystal, invariable in each substance, and by various modifications, which he points out, giving rise to the numerous secondary or actually existing forms." The lapidaries have long known that the crystals of the precious stones can be divided or split only in certain directions, and that they split in those directions with smooth faces. It was the observation of a similar fact which led to the theory of Haüy. He remarked, that an accidental fracture of a hexahedral prism of carbonate of lime, presented a very smooth surface. The fracture had happened obliquely from one of the sides to the base, so as to cut off one of its edges. The surface had so much lustre, that it seemed to be a natural layer or joining, and this induced Haüy to attempt to divide it still farther. This he was able to effect by applying the blow of a hammer to a knife, so placed, that the new fracture was parallel to the former one. He now tried the next side of the prism by the same means, but this proved refractory, and no division could be effected. The next side to this, divided as the first had done, with a smooth surface, making the same angle with the base. The next side proved refractory, but the next to that manifested the same structure with the first and third. From this statement, it ap-

pears that every other side, viz. in this case, the first, the third, and the fifth, was divisible in the same manner, the planes formed by the respective sections making the same angle with the base. Reversing the position of the prism, Haüy next attempted to divide it at the other end, beginning on the side which he had last separated with the knife; but he now found this, in its turn, refractory, the next, however, which at the other end had resisted the knife, now yielded to it, and thus the sections were continued on the alternate faces, until there was no face which had not been divided at one end or the other.

The hexahedral prism had now become a solid with fourteen faces. The bases had become triangles, the sides pentagons, and in place of the edges at the bases, were six trapeziums, three at one end and three at the other. Continuing the sections on all the sides, by fractures parallel to the former ones, the bases wholly disappeared. The solid was now a figure of twelve pentagonal sides. The sections being still continued in the same manner, the lateral pentagons became triangles, and the solid of twelve sides was now bounded by six lateral triangles and six pentagons. Finally, the divisions being continued as before, the lateral triangles disappeared and the figure became a rhomboid.

So singular a result induced him to attempt a similar dissection with other crystals of carbonate of lime, and however various were the figures of the crystals, he found them all reducible to the rhomb, which he therefore considered as the primitive crystal of all the carbonates of lime.

The same method being tried with the crystals of other substances, it was discovered, that by finding the natural joinings of the respective layers, a primitive form might be extracted out of all of them, which was, in most instances, different from the actual form of the crystal. This primitive form is always the same in the crystals of the same substance. Thus, the primitive form of the fluato of lime is an octahedron, that of the sulphate of barytes a prism with rhomboidal bases; of corundum, a rhomboid somewhat acute, of the beryl, a hexahedral prism; of the Elba iron ore, a cube; of scapolar, an oblique angled parallelepiped, but not rhomboidal; of blende, or the native sulphuretted oxide of zinc, a dodecahedron with rhomboidal sides. It is not true, however, that crystals of every kind have been subjected to this mechanical analysis. Many of them have been, many others are not susceptible of it, because they are too soft or too brittle, or for some other reason not affecting the principle. But, from the strain evident upon many of these crystals, indicating that they would divide only in a certain direction, and from the relation subsisting between their different secondary forms, Haüy finds reason to conclude what their primitive forms are. Had it not been possible, for instance, to split the dodecahedron of the carbonate of lime, consisting of two hexahedral pyramids, its primitive form could have been readily discovered by mere ocular inspection; for the rhomboid can be seen distinctly lying in the middle of the crystal, so evident are the strain. This crystal, however, is very divisible, and the primitive form may at once be extracted by a few strokes of the hammer and knife. Haüy defines the primitive crystal to be "a solid of a constant form, inserted symmetrically in all the crystals of the same species, and the faces of which observe the direction of the layers which compose these crystals."

Only six primitive forms have been hitherto discovered; viz. the parallelepipedon, including the cube, the rhomb, and all other solids, bounded by six faces, parallel two and two; the regular tetrahedron; the octahedron with triangular faces, the sided prism; the dodecahedron with rhomboidal faces; and the dodecahedron with isosceles triangular faces.

Thus far the theory, or rather the development of facts must be admitted as wholly satisfactory. But Haüy does not stop here. The mechanical

analysis may be carried still farther. The primitive crystal may be always divided by sections parallel to its different faces, and even in other directions. Were the dissection to be continued, by divisions made on all the sides at once, with the separation of layers of equal thickness, it is obvious that no change of form would be effected *ad infinitum*; e. g. a cube would still be a cube, and so on. But a division may be made parallel to some one side or more, and not to the rest; for instance, a hexahedral prism may be supposed to be divisible through all the diagonals of its bases, each one of which diagonals is parallel to two sides and no more. In this way it would be divided into six equal triangular prisms, and the prisms, joined again by their faces, would compose the original six sided prism. Now, this figure is one of the primitive forms, and we see that it may be made up by other forms very different from itself, and different from any of the other primitive forms, and these forms may be developed by continuing the sections by lines parallel to one face or more, but not to all. Moreover, if the primitive form be divisible, in some other line not parallel to either side, it will be clearly possible that we may find it composed of forms different from itself. Thus, if a cube were divided through both its diagonals, on any one side, it would be reduced to four triangular prisms, and these prisms, if joined by their faces, would again compose the original cube. If the division were carried through all its diagonals on the different sides, the cube would then be resolved into twenty-four oblique tetrahedra, and these tetrahedra, joined again by their faces, would compose the original cube.

It is not pretended that the analysis, by dissection, has been carried to this extent. It is certainly conceivable, however, supposing it possible to operate on such small masses of matter, that it may be pushed so far, that no change of form beyond the given one would ensue, without resolving the substance into its original elements. To these last particles, the ultimate term, not only of actual but of supposable dissection, the name of *integrant particles* has been given by Haüy. So far as experiment has gone, they are three, viz. the tetrahedron, the simplest of pyramids; the triangular prism, the simplest of prisms; and the parallelopipedon, the simplest of solids, whose faces are parallel two and two. Of these three integrant particles, it is believed that the six primitive forms of crystals are composed. We have already seen how they may unite so as to produce forms very different from themselves; and if we consider that they may unite in different ways, by their edges or faces, we shall find no difficulty in admitting that they are fully competent to produce the six primitive forms.

As it is often asked by those to whom this theory is new, why the integrant particles are not considered as the primitive forms, and why we stop at these last, since they are all reducible to the three integrant particles? it will be useful to remark, that we have no evidence that the integrant particles, by uniting with each other in various ways, produce any more than the six primitive forms. The number of forms of crystals is, however, very great, and it happens only in a few instances, comparatively, that the actual form is the primitive. The truth seems to be, that the integrant particles first unite and produce the primitive form; this is the first step in the production of a crystal.

The primitive form is the nucleus, the kernel, as it were, from which the crystal grows, and this primitive form is generated by the union of the integrant particles, either by their faces or edges. The additional matter which envelopes the nucleus, and forms the mass of the crystal, is composed of thin layers or slices, consisting of integrant particles, deposited upon the faces of the nucleus, so as to form laminae parallel, in every step of the progress, to these faces. In the aggregation which takes place upon the surfaces of any given primitive form, we are not to consider the additions as composed necessarily of masses similar to the solid already produced,

but of integrant particles only. In a word, the integrant particles first produce the primitive form, and then, beginning upon this as a substratum, they build up the crystal, that is, the actual or secondary form. But how is the vast variety of secondary forms produced from so small a number of primary forms? They arise from the abstraction of one or more rows of particles from the sides or angles, in the several layers of superposition, thus giving rise to the various modes of decrement which Haüy includes under several laws.

1. Decrements at the edges.
2. Decrements at the angles.
3. Intermediate decrements.
4. Mixed decrements.

The first of these laws admits of easy illustration. Suppose a cube upon which we wish to construct a secondary form. It may be effected in the following manner. Suppose a layer of integrant particles to be added to any one side of the cube, but stopping short of the edge by one row of particles all around. It is obvious, that in this manner a kind of step will be formed, and the new layer will not cover the whole of the side, but leave one row of particles uncovered, at the edges. Now, suppose the next layer to fall short of this by one row of integrant particles, and each successive layer to be deposited in the same manner and with the same decrement, till at last the layer shall consist of only a single particle. In this manner a four sided pyramid will be erected on one side of the cube. Suppose the same process to be repeated on each of the six sides of the cube. It is apparent that, in this manner six pyramids will be produced, each of which is bounded by four triangles, and as the rate of decrement was uniform on each side of the cube, the planes of the pyramids, on the contiguous sides, will form one continued plane, viz. two equal triangles will be united and form a rhomboidal face, and as there are twenty-four triangles, there will, of course, be twelve rhombs. The solid will then be a dodecahedron, bounded by rhomboidal faces, a figure not at all analogous to the primitive form with which we began.

If we were now to reverse the process, we may extract the primitive form by chipping off with a knife the successive layers, till the six sides of the original cube should be again brought into view. It will not be necessary to go through a minute illustration of the other laws. It will be sufficient to state them somewhat more fully. The decrement which has been described, is obviously parallel to the sides of the primitive form. It is plain, that a decrement, commencing with the omission of a single particle at the angle; then of three, immediately contiguous, in the next layer above; then of five in the next above that, and so on, would be a decrement parallel to a diagonal of the face of the primitive form. This, then, is decrement according to the second law, that is decrement at the angles and parallel to the diagonals. Were it to go on regularly at all the angles at the same time, the secondary form produced, would be a regular octahedron, (Thomson, 2d edit. vol. iii. p. 220.)

The third law differs from this only in one circumstance. The subtraction is supposed to be made by commencing with a single particle at the angle, as before; but instead of going on in a line parallel to the diagonal, the subtraction becomes parallel to a line intermediate between the diagonal and the side; and this is effected, by making the subtraction in the proportion of one particle in the line parallel to one side enclosing the angle, and of two particles in the line which is parallel to the other side enclosing the angle, so that the decrement is really an oblique one, being parallel neither to a side nor to a diagonal, but to an intermediate line, and hence its name of intermediate decrement. In the fourth law of decrement, whether it be parallel to the edges or angles, the abstraction is not by one row of par-

ticles in breadth, or by one row in height, but by two or more rows in each of these cases. Haüy denotes this decrement by a fractional expression, where the numerator denotes the number of rows of particles which constitute the decrement, and the denominator the thickness of the lamina.

All the varieties of crystals may be explained by the application of these four laws, and the various modifications of which they are susceptible. These modifications are reducible to seven heads.

1. Sometimes the decrements take place on all the edges, or on all the angles, at once.

2. Sometimes on certain edges, or on certain angles only.

3. Sometimes they are uniform by one, two, or more rows.

4. Sometimes the law varies from one edge to another, or from one angle to another.

5. Sometimes decrements on the edges and angles take place at the same time.

6. Sometimes the same edge, or the same angle, undergoes several successive laws of decrement.

7. There are cases where the secondary crystal has faces parallel to those of the primitive form, and which give rise to new modifications, from their combinations with the faces resulting from the decrements.

An immense number of forms of crystals may exist with such a diversity of laws, and the possible forms far exceed the actual. The carbonate of lime, for instance, confining the calculation to two of the simplest laws, is susceptible of 2044 different forms, the subtractions being by one or two ranges; if three and four ranges be admitted, the possible forms will amount to 8,388,604, whereas the forms really known are only about 40. Such are the outlines of the theory of Haüy. As it has not been demonstrated, and perhaps, from the nature of the case cannot be, that crystals are actually formed in this manner, we must regard it as a mathematical hypothesis, depending for proof upon the ample manner in which it explains the phenomena, and the exact correspondence of calculation with fact, the theory having been applied successfully by its author in predicting the chemical constitution of substances from the form of their crystals, thus anticipating the accurate results of analysis.

NOTE 7. Page 15. NITRATE OF COPPER.

For the preparation of nitrate of copper, the common copper coin of this country (the cents) will answer perfectly well; and if they be battered into a roll by holding them upon an anvil with pincers, and striking them on the side with a hammer, they may be introduced into a gas-bottle, and a double product of nitrous gas and of nitrate of copper may thus be obtained.

NOTE 8. Page 24. ELASTIC GUM-BOTTLE.

The valve mentioned in the text, although convenient, is not indispensable, for the air of course returns into the bottle as soon as the ball is blown and the tube withdrawn.

In using this instrument, it is well to fix the tube into a perforated cork, and this into the mouth of the elastic bottle, making it secure by a string tied tight around.

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NOTE 9. Page 25. THERMOMETER.

It will be convenient to fill the bulb in the manner indicated in the text. By leaving the bulb, easy to reach, as well as exposed to correspondence with the expansion produced by the heat, and the tube and bulb will fill contain full of air, although greatly expanded. On withdrawing the bulb, the mercury will enter, and the air in the bulb is in no moment as it enters the pressure of the atmosphere, with the aid of the mercurial vacuum. The bulb may be almost any bulb filled at the moment. To expose the remaining air, keep the tube as nearly as a horizontal position as possible, without raising its end out of the mercury. Keep the bulb over a steady heated candle; the mercury will gradually boil, and molecular vapour will force out the air, and about the whole of the unexpanded mercury. Immediately on withdrawing the bulb from the candle, the mercurial vapour will be condensed, and the mercury will rush in with violence, and fill the bulb quite full, if the operation have been judiciously performed.

NOTE 10. Page 39. BOILING POINT IN VACUO.

This is now fixed at 212° lower than the ordinary boiling point of the particular fluid, (Thomson, 2d edition, vol. i. p. 349.)

NOTE 11. Page 40. INFLUENCE OF PRESSURE ON EBULLITION.

These principles may be illustrated very pleasingly, in the following manner.

Provide a flask with a stop-cock connected to its mouth. A common straight stop-cock thrust through a cork, and firmly pressed into the mouth of the flask, will answer the purpose. Introduce as much water as will fill about one third or one half of the flask. Place it on live coals in a chafing-dish, and when it boils rapidly, shut the cock. Immediately the ebullition will be checked, and in the progress of a few seconds, it will nearly or quite cease. Remove the vessel from the fire, and open the cock; the accumulated vapour, which repressed the ebullition, will then rush out with great violence, and the fluid will boil very rapidly. This experiment requires caution, lest, from continuing the heat too long, the flask should burst; and it will, therefore, be well to prove the strength of the flask by degrees; but the beginner must not venture too far.

Again, while the water is boiling freely in the flask on the fire, shut the cock and remove the vessel into a cool place. Although at a distance from the fire, the boiling will continue for some time; it may be for a quarter or half of an hour. During this period, if the flask be immersed in cold water, a rapid ebullition will be produced; if in hot, it will be repressed or entirely destroyed. Lastly, if a flask with a very long neck be tightly corked while it is boiling, and after it has become cold be suddenly reversed, the water in it will fall down the neck with the apparent weight of a stone; for it now falls without any resistance from the atmosphere.

This instrument, or one constructed on this principle, with some variation of form, is called the *water-hammer*.

NOTE 12. Page 40. VAPORATION OF ETHER.

The experiment is not striking unless the water be hotter than 104° , in which case it becomes unpleasant to immerse the hands in it.

Perhaps the following method is better. Introduce some ether into a small vial; tie the neck of a bladder fast around the neck of the vial, and introduce the latter into water at the temperature of 150° or 200° . Within a few seconds the bladder will be fully distended by the vapour of the ether, as much as it would be by a vigorous inflation from the lungs, and some of the ether will disappear from the vial. On withdrawing this from the water, the bladder soon becomes flaccid, and very rapidly if dashed with cold water. Water may be vaporized in the same manner, only substituting a small flask for the vial, and immersing it in hot mercury instead of hot water.

NOTE 13. Page 52. IRON BOTTLES.

The cast-iron bottles are liable to melt, if the heat be permitted to rise inadvertently beyond a certain point, as the writer has, more than once, experienced. A wrought-iron bottle is not liable to this inconvenience, and is indeed an instrument of very extensive utility. An iron tube, somewhat wider than a gun-barrel, and about eighteen inches long, should be welded to its mouth, and to this other tubes may be adjusted, as convenience requires.

Excellent bottles of this description may *probably* be procured of Mr. *Whitney*, at his manufactory of arms in the vicinity of *New-Haven*. He has made one for the writer, and it is presumed, may be induced to manufacture others, not as a matter of profit, but for the promotion of science; for his attachment to which, he is not less distinguished, than for the skillful and successful application of the principles of mechanical philosophy, to the improvement of arts depending upon it.

NOTE 14. Page 55. GAZOMETER AND AIR-HOLDERS.

An instrument has been for several years used in the laboratory of Yale College, for experiments in the large way, on the gases which water does not rapidly absorb, which has been found to be more convenient and complete than any other arrangement of apparatus for similar purposes. The only instrument of the kind which has ever been constructed, was manufactured in New-Haven. Being calculated for an extensive course of public lectures, delivered in a laboratory where there is plenty of room, its dimensions are larger than might be worth while in establishments on a smaller scale. Its form is that of a parallelopipedon, $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet long, 3 feet wide, and 2 feet 2 inches deep, without allowing for the two inch pine plank of which this part of the instrument is constructed. The several planks and parts are connected by grooves and tongues, and bound together by iron rods, passing laterally through them, and terminating in screws furnished with nuts. The interior part is furnished with two shelves, each two feet six inches long, for sustaining air-jars and bell-glasses; the middle space between these is one foot eight inches wide, and forms a well for immersing the bell-glasses; across this well is placed a sliding shelf, with three inverted shallow tin funnels beneath it, corresponding with as many

holes for receiving and transferring gases. Thus far, it is obvious that the instrument is only a very extensive pneumatic cistern, and has no superiority over those commonly in use, except from its affording ample space for a very important and interesting class of experiments, which are much more impressive and convincing to a large audience, when performed on a large scale. There are, however, a number of additional contrivances. Beneath each of the shelves are two inverted rectangular boxes, made of thin pine plank, dovetailed together at the angles, entirely open below, and attached to the inferior side of the shelves by coupons, grooves, and wood-screws. These boxes are twelve inches deep, of the capacity of about 12 gallons each, and occupy the whole space beneath the shelves except 7.5 inches at each end of the cistern, and more inches between the bottom of the boxes and the bottom of the cistern. This latter space is reserved to give room for the action of three pair of hydrostatic bellows. They are made of leather, nailed to the bottom of the cistern, distended by circular iron rings, and attached by nails to a thick circular plank which serves as a top, and which is moved up and down by an iron rod connected with an iron lever, which rests on a forked iron support, attached to the upper edge of the end of the cistern. The bellows are so placed, that nearly one half projects beneath the boxes, which we may call reservoirs; the other part is beneath the open space which lies between the end of the reservoirs and the end of the cistern, and the rod of the bellows perforates the sheet immediately at the termination of the box and contiguous to it, but does not pass through the box, which must be air-tight. At the edge of that part of the bellows which projects beneath the reservoir, is a valve opening upward, in the centre of the bellows and on the bottom of the cistern which is also the bottom of the bellows, is another valve opening upwards, covering an orifice which is connected with a duct, leading out, laterally, through the plank, edgewise, to the atmosphere. Into this duct is inserted a copper tube, consisting of two parts, one of which forms merely a portion of the duct, being driven into it so that it forms a perfectly tight connection; the other part is soldered to this at right angles, and stands in close contact with the outside of the cistern, till it rises two inches higher than its upper edge, and there it opens in an orifice somewhat dilated. Each of the four reservoirs may be considered as furnished with the apparatus of bellows, duct, valves, and tube, although in the instrument to which this description refers, there are in fact but three bellows, &c. one reservoir being destitute of them. It remains to be remarked, that each reservoir is furnished with a stop-cock which lies horizontally upon the shelf and partly imbedded in it, and passes into the reservoir by a short tube of copper, soldered at right angles with the cock. The cocks of the two contiguous reservoirs are placed parallel to each other and to the sides of the cistern, and immediately contiguous to the partition which separates the reservoirs, and they are connected by a third stop-cock soldered to each of them, opening into both by proper orifices, and thus forming, when occasion requires, to connect the reservoirs, and in fact, to convert two into one. Through each of the shelves, at the angles of the two reservoirs which are contiguous at once to that side of the cistern which may be regarded as its back part, and to the west, a hole is bored into the reservoir for the insertion of a copper tube for a blow-pipe. These tubes are so formed, that while one part is pressed firmly into the hole so as to be air-tight, another part, at right angles with the first, and bending in a pretty large curve, terminates in a trumpet-like orifice, adapted to the insertion of a cork. Immediately beneath these two orifices is a table, attached by hinges to the side of the cistern, to sustain a lamp for the blow-pipe when not in use it hangs by the side of the cistern, and is raised occasionally as it is wanted.

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To an intelligent chemist, it will be obvious from an attentive perusal of the description, that this instrument will afford all the following advantages.

1. It is an extensive pneumatic cistern, with every common convenience, on a large scale.

2. By the bellows and their appendages, common air may be thrown into the reservoirs, by which means the height of the water on the shelves may be increased at pleasure, when it is too low.

3. By permitting a portion of this air to escape, by opening one of the horizontal cocks, the height of the water on the shelves may be diminished at pleasure; thus we have means of graduating the height of the water precisely to our purpose without lading it out or in.

4. We have four capacious air-holders in the very place where the gases are produced, viz. in the pneumatic cistern; thus, four different kinds of gases may be stored away under water in a space otherwise useless. For instance, common air, for regulating the height of the water, or, for the blow-pipe, may be in one reservoir; oxygen gas in a second, hydrogen gas in a third, and olefiant gas in a fourth, and they may be thus reserved for future use.

5. The gases may be drawn off for use into bell-glasses, merely by bringing those bell-glasses, filled with water, over the horizontal cocks.

6. It is obvious that the four reservoirs are in fact four large gazometers; they want nothing to entitle them to this character, except a scale which a moderate share of ingenuity would easily adapt to them; the gases may be delivered into them at once by crooked tubes passing from the gas-bottles, and any gas contained in a bell-glass may be thrown into a reservoir, by a single stroke of the bellows. For this purpose a crooked tube connected with that which leads to the bellows and terminating in the well beneath an air jar, is all that is necessary. Or, by baring the arm, the gas may be thrown up by the hand, into the reservoirs, the jar being pushed down through the water.

7. It affords an excellent blow-pipe for common purposes noticed in a former note, and for the fine experiments with oxygen gas; and, by fitting to it Mr. Hare's very ingenious apparatus of the silver cylinder, it becomes the *compound blow-pipe* for the invention and application of which he deserves so much credit. By the same contrivance water is formed with the greatest facility by burning the two gases as they come from their respective reservoirs, and issue at a common orifice, covering the flame with a receiver.

8. The inflammable gases being confined beneath the pressure of water, will issue at any orifices, where they are permitted, and thus all the ornamental as well as useful purposes to which the combustion of these gases is applied, may be exhibited; particularly, the gas from fossil coal may be made to burn in revolving jets, stars, and other fanciful and useful forms, merely by substituting for a blow-pipe tube, the apparatus proper for this exhibition.

All these purposes, this instrument has fully answered during several years; and it may be confidently recommended to lecturers on chemistry, and, on a smaller scale would be very valuable to a private chemist. A forcing pump might be substituted for the bellows, with a saving of the space which the bellows occupy, but it would be probably less convenient in practice.

This first idea of this instrument was suggested to the writer while in Philadelphia by Mr. Hare's compound blow-pipe. Being mentioned to that gentleman, the subject was prosecuted in common, and so far matured that it was afterwards executed by the annotator. (See Mr. Hare's communication on the subject in the transactions of the Philosophical Society

of Philadelphia. The details of the instrument, of which a plate is there given, differ however considerably from that which has now been described.)

NOTE 15. Page 101. ACID TESTS.

As litmus cannot be usually procured in the shops of this country, it will be well to mention that the infusion or tincture of almost all the blue or purple flowers and vegetables, will answer sufficiently well. The blue violet, the blue lily, and especially the blue or purple cabbage being boiled with water in a tea-kettle afford an infusion, which when filtered or strained forms an excellent test of acids. The purple cabbage is particularly recommended, both because it is a good test, and because it can be procured at that season of the year when there are no flowers. It is also an excellent test of alkalies which turn it green. A very pleasing succession of colours may be exhibited by this infusion.

1. Acids turn it red.
2. Alkalies, if added in such proportion as merely to saturate the acid, restore the purple colour.
3. A little more alkali turns it green. The reverse order may be pursued beginning with the alkali and ending with the acid. The infusion of the skin of the blue or purple radish is a good test and that of the leaf of the red beet an indifferent one. All these infusions may be preserved from putrefaction by the addition of common spirit, but, they ultimately lose their colour. Indigo is not changed by acids or alkalies. It is even dissolved in the sulphuric acid, for the purpose of dyeing.

NOTE 16. Page 101. CHARCOAL.

Charcoal may be neatly prepared for exhibition, by plunging pieces of wood, held by tongs, beneath a quantity of melted lead. In this case there can be no access of air, and the wood will, if the pieces be small, be converted, in a few minutes, into charcoal, while the lead will be thrown into violent ebullition, by the escape of the water, hydrogen and other volatile parts. The hydrogen is so abundant, that it may even be set on fire as it issues from the lead.

NOTE 17. Page 114. CARBONATE OF SODA.

It is the solution of this salt combined with a prodigious quantity of carbonic acid forced into union with it and retained by strong mechanical compression, which constitutes the *soda water*, so much used in England, for acidity in the stomach and other complaints.

NOTE 18. PAGE 124.

The author means fossil coal; charcoal is also commonly called coal in this country, and, although it affords abundance of gas by distillation, it gives no tar. In obtaining the carburcited hydrogen gas from fossil coal, it

is indispensable that the vessel be not nearly full of the coal; otherwise it will be in danger of bursting on account of the inflated state into which the heat throws the coal.

NOTE 19. Page 127. CRYSTALLIZATION OF SULPHUR.

The crystallization of sulphur is easily effected by melting it in a deep earthen vessel, and pouring out the part which remains fluid, by piercing a hole, near the edge of the vessel, in the crust which forms on the surface, when the instrument is withdrawn from the fire.

NOTE 20. Page 129. SULPHURIC ACID.

The deposit alluded to in the text consists principally of sulphate of lead, formed by the action of the sulphuric acid on the lead used to line the rooms in which the acid is manufactured.

NOTE 21. Page 137. SULPHATE OF LIME.

In this country the sulphate of lime, under the name of the plaster of Paris is extensively used, as a manure, and is constantly becoming more and more important to our agricultural interests. It is brought to the United States principally from Nova Scotia, and is a regular article of commerce in our sea ports, whence it is carried into the interior. What is the true theory of the operation of this salt as a manure? This question has not, as yet, been satisfactorily answered. It cannot however admit of a doubt that the question is of much importance, as it could not fail to direct the application of this substance by principle, whereas, it is now left to empirical practice.

A common impression, that the effect is produced by the attraction of water, is manifestly erroneous, for this salt discovers very little disposition to attract water.

In order to a skilful investigation of this subject, plants should be made to grow in an insulated portion of earth, of a known composition, mixed with a given weight of the sulphate of lime, and, after the plant had arrived at maturity it should be accurately analysed as well as the earth in which it grew, in order to ascertain,

1. Whether any portion of the sulphate of lime could be found in the vegetable.

2. If not, whether any portion of its elements, sulphur, oxygen, or lime could be discovered.

3. Whether the soil contained any portion of the salt undecomposed, or of its elements, and how much, and whether any new combinations of the salt, or of its elements, with any matter present in the soil or vegetable had been effected.

4. As a standard of comparison, other individuals of the same kind of vegetables, which have grown in an equal portion of the same soil, *unmixed with the plaster*, should be examined in the same manner, as well as the soil, after the plant had arrived at maturity.

By experiments of this kind sufficiently multiplied, and performed with

the repulsive case, we might hope to arrive at satisfactory results. If such experiments have been undertaken, the writer has not met with them.

There is another practical application of this substance, which is however not equally important. It is employed, after having been calcined and pulverized, to copy busts and statues, and even the countenances of living people. It is formed into a paste, which is applied to the subject; the paste then hardens and forms a mould, in which a plaster cast exactly resembling the original may be formed. In this way the *Plaster of Paris* is highly important to the imitative arts, which have, without doubt, an important connection with a highly improved state of society.

NOTE 22. ALUM.

Any salt containing potash or ammonia will effect the crystallization of alum. For this purpose it is well known that the manufacturers of alum add sulphate or sulphate of potash, or potash urine; this salt contains ammonia. Alum has always an excess of acid. It may therefore be—

1. A superphosphate of alumine and potash.
2. A superphosphate of alumine and ammonia.
3. A superphosphate of alumine potash and ammonia.

It is usually a triple salt, and sometimes even quadruple. All these variations are actually found in the alum of commerce, according to the various processes used for its crystallization.

NOTE 23. NITROUS GAS AND OXYGEN GAS PRODUCE NITROUS ACID.

The generation of an acid is much more strikingly shown by filling a wide tube, or narrow jar, with almost any blue vegetable infusion. Turn up a portion of oxygen gas, and no change will ensue. Add the proper proportion of nitrous gas; immediately deep red fumes of nitrous acid will appear, and the liquor will become red.

The nitrous acid appears to be a gas, when confined in a glass vessel, without the contact of any other body. This may be demonstrated in the following manner:

Let a glass bottle be ground with emery, into the mouth of another of twice the capacity. Fill the upper bottle with oxygen gas, in the usual manner, and the lower one with nitrous gas. Place the two bottles, as quickly as possible, in connection. The gases will combine, colour will be extricated, and the vessels will be filled with the red gas of nitrous acid, which may in this manner be kept for any length of time unchanged. On separating the bottles, and immersing their orifices in water, there will be an immediate absorption, and if a blue infusion have been employed, it will become red.

NOTE 23, page 157. NITROUS OXIDE.

If the gas be skillfully prepared, the precaution of letting it stand several hours over water seems to be unnecessary, and, it is very desirable to avoid it, because a pretty rapid absorption takes place, and much gas is thus lost. The writer has not hesitated to administer it for respiration within half an hour from its production, and sometimes immediately, and no unpleasant

consequence has ever resulted. So far as nitrous gas is concerned, no advantage is gained by letting it stand, for if this be present, its proportion will rather increase from the more rapid absorption of the nitrous oxide. And indeed a very coarse trial is sufficient to decide whether nitrous gas be present, which will be detected by the smell and colour of nitrous acid which it will produce on mixing it with common air by turning up a jar. As to any vapour of nitrous acid which may have been extricated, this will, no doubt, be absorbed by the water, in the various operations preparatory to the respiration of the gas.

NOTE 24. Page 162. NITRE AND SULPHUR.

In the combustion of sulphur, by means of nitre, if only 1-6 or 1-8 of nitre be employed, the phenomenon will not be striking; the sulphur will scarcely burn unless in contact with an ignited body; for illustration, a larger proportion should be used.

NOTE 25. Page 171. ACID GASES, &c.

There is a method of obtaining the gases, which water rapidly absorbs, without the aid of a mercurial apparatus. It is founded on the difference between the specific gravity of these gases and that of common air.

1. Muriatic acid gas, whose weight is nearly twice that of common air, may be obtained as follows:

To the mouth of a Florence flask adapt a cork, in which is fixed a glass tube, bent twice at right angles. Place in the flask the materials for affording muriatic acid gas, viz. common salt and sulphuric acid, and having adjusted the tube, let one end of it be inserted into a narrow-mouthed empty bottle or vial, and let the orifice of the tube descend quite to the bottom of the bottle or vial. The muriatic acid gas, from its great weight, will occupy the lower portion of the vessel, and expel the common air at the mouth. Thus the gas will be obtained sufficiently pure for exhibiting its most obvious properties.

In the same manner precisely, the sulphurous acid gas and the fluoric acid gas may be obtained.

2. The ammoniacal gas, being lighter than common air, is to be obtained upon the same principle, only reversing the arrangement.

The materials for affording this gas, viz. quick-lime and muriate of ammonia being placed in a flask, instead of a tube twice bent, employ a straight tube passing, as before, through the cork. Invert the vial or bottle upon this tube, so that the orifice of the tube may be in contact with the bottom of the bottle, which is now its highest part. The ammoniacal gas will rise and expel the common air, as in the other cases, only the order will be reversed.

It may be decided when the vessels are about filled with the gases, by the pungency of the smell, by the mist produced by the muriatic and fluoric acid gases, at the mouth of the vial, and perhaps better than all by the copious white cloud which all the acid gases produce, when a feather, dipped in liquid ammonia, is brought to the mouth of the vial, or by the occurrence of the same phenomenon, in the case of ammoniacal gas, when the feather is dipped in muriatic acid.

NOTE 26. Page 175. MURIATE OF AMMONIA.

This salt may be formed by mingling the constituent gases in a two-necked receiver, as they issue from two retorts, in the manner recommended by the author for the carbonate of ammonia. See text, page 114.

NOTE 27. Page 185. SUPER-OXYMURIATE OF POTASH.

As caustic potash is expensive when purchased, and troublesome to prepare, it may be well for the student to know that the carbonate of potash, as commonly found in the shops, will do for the formation of the super-oxy-muriate. In this case there is a continual effervescence, at least during the earlier stages of the process, owing to the disengagement of carbonic acid gas. Some filix is also deposited, derived from the potash which, as it is found in commerce, usually contains a portion of filix. One who had never observed the fact before, might mistake this for a deposition of the salt in question.

NOTE 28. Page 214. SILVER.

The remark in the text, that silver, when dissolved in nitric acid, exhibits a green colour if impure, is strictly applicable to the alloy of silver with copper, such as exists in coin and in trinkets, which, when dissolved in nitric acid, tinge the solution green, but silver might be impure from a combination with various other substances, without giving, on that account, a green solution.

NOTE 28. Page 216. FULMINATING SILVER.

The process given by the author for the formation of fulminating silver, is attended with considerable hazard to the operator, and often fails. The following process may be repeated with safety, although not without caution, and scarcely ever fails. Pulverize 100 grains of the common lunar caustic of the shops (nitrate of silver,) add to it one ounce of alcohol and one ounce of nitric acid. If these agents are good, there will be a violent action. But, this will not happen with these fluids as they are commonly found, and generally it will be necessary to apply a very moderate heat, which must be removed as soon as the action comes on. Very soon a thick white precipitate will appear; distilled water may then be thrown on to check the action, if becoming too violent, the precipitate must be washed in distilled water, after having been separated by the filter, or, by decantation, and will fulminate powerfully by heat or friction. A convenient way of exploding it is to place a grain or two of it on the blade of a knife, and to hold it over a candle.

NOTE 29. Page 217. BOILING POINT OF MERCURY.

This, according to the latest experiments of Irvine and others, is placed at 672° Fahrenheit. See Murray's System of Chemistry, vol. I. page 153.

NOTE 30. Page 217. NITRATE OF MERCURY.

The fact that the nitrate of mercury differs very much in its properties, according as it is prepared with or without heat, is extremely important. In the latter case, it will bear any degree of dilution with pure water, without decomposition, or affording any precipitate. In the former, a large portion of the oxide, still retaining a little acid, will be thrown down merely by the affinity existing between water and the nitric acid. For this reason, the nitrate of mercury, made with heat, cannot be employed in the analysis of mineral waters, and in many other analytical operations, because water alone will produce a precipitate, and this will give a false indication of the presence of some foreign body.

Again, when muriatic acid is united to the oxide of mercury made by the nitric acid, *with heat*, corrosive sublimate is produced; when to that made *without heat*, calomel is the product. This alone demonstrates the necessity of attending to this distinction; for few bodies so similar in their composition, are so different in their properties, as corrosive sublimate and calomel. The truth is, that when the solution of mercury in the nitric acid is made *with heat*, the metal is oxydized to a maximum; when without heat, to a minimum only, and this is the cause of the widely different properties which the two solutions exhibit, and of much of the confusion which is found on this subject in chemical books.

NOTE 31. Page 233. SULPHURET OF IRON.

There can be no doubt that the author perfectly understood that the phenomenon of the extrication of latent caloric, attended by light, during the combination of sulphur and iron, is not, as he has termed it, a *combustion*. Were it a real combustion, the iron would be found oxydized, and the sulphur acidified. But neither of these facts is so. It is well known that the compound decomposes water by the aid of an acid, and sulphur rises dissolved in the hydrogen, both of which facts are inconsistent with a previous combustion. Whatever uncertainty there may be, (and it is acknowledged there is much) in the use of the word combustion, it must, no doubt, in every case, include a combination of oxygen with the body burned, and an increase of weight in the sum of the products, neither of which facts exists in this case.

NOTE 32. Page 237. OXIDES OF LEAD.

The observation in the text, that "the oxides of lead give up their oxygen on the application of heat," is not true in the extent there stated. A portion only of its oxygen can be obtained from the *red oxide*, which contains the most. If the flame of the blow-pipe be directed upon red lead in

LXXIV

NOTES.

a plat n. it immediately becomes the yellow oxide by losing a portion
of ox then melts into a glass, and cannot, by any longer continu-
and used intensity of heat, be reduced to the metallic state; but
the any carbonaceous substance immediately effects it, under the
blow

NOTE 33 PAGE 265. GALLIC ACID.

The
acid
from
be
of

important in this method of gallic
and the retort must be removed
coloured oil begins to rise, or
readily contaminate the crystals

6. IRON.

Iron is not al
it be in a low fl
at first; but on
purple, gradually

red black by the gallic acid. If
colour will scarcely be perceived
it with the air, it will become
to the absorption of oxygen.

END OF THE NOTES.

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